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American Diplomatic History in High School

BY PROFESSOR CARL RUSSELL FISH, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

The writer deeply sympathizes with the secondary teacher who reads one month that the all-important element in American history is the economic, the next, that it is the constitutional, the next, that colonial history must give due stress to British administration; and finds in each case a suggested program that would amply fill the time devoted to the whole subject. He would be alarmed by the thought that the whole scope of the high school course must be constantly fluctuating, were he not confident that the common sense of the teacher—as also the human limitations of the teacher's knowledge—suffice to give the student some grounding in that comparatively unchanging fact basis which the gradual evolution of historic thought has worked out.

These suggestions, therefore, are not offered with any idea that diplomatic history is the most important element in American development, and the effort is made to limit them to what is practical in a course which is to furnish the whole background of the student's idea of his country's past.

The first consideration is that diplomacy is not international law. In the United States alone it is necessary to make this distinction, because, with their legalistic bent, Americans, even experts, exaggerate the sanction of international law. Most Americans even go so far as to regard certain long-continued American policies, notably the Monroe Doctrine, as having a legal character. This habit of thinking has differentiated the United States from other countries, sometimes to its advantage. It is always, however, liable to provoke international misunderstandings.

One point, therefore, to be left clear in the mind of the student is that states in their relations, are not regulated by any such system of law as are individuals, but by certain habits and customs and agreements, which may, even in their own day, turn into an enforceable law, but which have not yet done so.

As to what stress should be put upon international law, thus differentiated and explained, the author is doubtful. Certain well-sustained American convictions on the subject will inevitably form part of any course, for they were part of the web and woof of American history from 1793 to 1815, and during the Civil War. It is undoubtedly more important that these questions be really understood, than that an attempt be made to give a survey of the principles of international law as a whole; for any such effort is sure to fail. Certainly it is to the diplomatic side that the major attention should be given. Diplomacy includes the legalistic relations of nations, and it in-

cludes much more, it would exist if international law vanished. But questions as to the manner and extent of treatment do not always admit of definite answer, and the author can only present his opinion. On all questions of international law which arise, J. B. Moore's "Digest" is by far the most useful work of reference.¹

Is it necessary to present diplomatic history as a continuous development, as, for instance, the tariff and the currency must be presented? It seems to the author that there is no similar necessity, for, whereas the tariff and the currency were continually pivots of politics and signals of economic conditions, there are long stretches when diplomacy was the toy of politicians rather than their master, and when it was even neglected. The course of national development, therefore, can be satisfactorily explained in many periods without considering the diplomatic element. This detachment of diplomatic history from the main current of American development for long periods makes it possible to employ the topical treatment to a greater extent than is possible in the case of many other subjects. One may seize upon some critical moment and introduce a diplomatic question, running its history backward and forward, without giving serious misconceptions as to its relation to other problems. Such a topical method being possible, seems also desirable, for by devoting a considerable unit of time to diplomatic affairs, it is possible to create an impression on the student, whereas the continued incidental reference to diplomatic matters as of secondary importance may leave no impression at all.

In considering whether such topical treatments must be so arranged as to cover the field or may be selected as illustrative, one must have in mind the purpose to be attained. To the author it seems that the main object is to make the student realize that the United States is one of a community of nations, that it has interests which inevitably throw it into relation with other countries. At the same time, it is equally necessary to give an idea of the conditions that govern these relationships: That no nation can be a law unto itself; that compromise is oftentimes necessary; that it is not enough to be right, but that it is also essential, in the absence of a final court of adjudication, to be forcible; that force may consist of military and naval organization, of economic resources, of the moral support of world opinion, and that these

¹ "Digest of International Law." 8 vols. Government Printing Office, 1906.

various forces have their special functions and their limitations. Again, diplomacy is actually managed by fewer individuals than other public matters, and it consequently gives a better opportunity to study the working of the personal element. On the other hand, the influence of national prejudices, passions and convictions, must be duly appreciated. To bring out these factors, detailed treatment is necessary, and detailed treatment can be given only at some expense of comprehensiveness. It is believed that more will be gained by the selection of episodes for illustrative purposes than will be lost.

The material for diplomatic history is in some respects extremely good, but it is not particularly well suited to the secondary school. The best works are highly specialized, and emphasis is too often given to a new detail, rather than to basic considerations. They belong rather to the monographic than the expository order. On the other hand, the source material is unusually available and interesting, and lends itself especially well to topic work.

Of general works, J. B. Moore's "American Diplomacy"² is valuable for the teacher, as showing the general direction of American policy. J. W. Foster's "A Century of American Diplomacy,"³ while running only to 1876, and not up to date in the handling of many questions, has a lightness and familiarity of touch, particularly in handling the personal element, that will make it interesting and valuable to the student. The author's "American Diplomacy"⁴ is what he could do in five hundred pages. There are at present no other comprehensive works, but W. A. Dunning's "British Empire and the United States"⁵ (1814-1914) is a charming and authoritative handling of a very considerable part of our diplomacy.

To take up particular topics, the importance and the interest of our Revolutionary relationships command and invite attention. To secure sufficient mass to create a proper impression it is desirable to unite for treatment the whole diplomacy from the beginning to the end, treating it after Yorktown. No better opportunity is afforded for showing the complexity of international connections, and this complexity should be insisted upon even at the expense of leaving the student a little vague as to exactly where everybody stood. No better opportunity is afforded of showing the dependence of the United States on world conditions, and the fact that French aid was essential should be made absolutely plain. Whether one be a Jayite or a Franklinite, Franklin should undoubtedly be starred, for no figure in American history so oozes diplomatic quality. If possible, topics should be assigned which will make some students familiar with his letters. The questions of international morality involved in the separate negotiations of the American Commissioners with England, are sure to excite

interest, though the problem of evidence with regard to Vergennes' intentions is too intricate for any but the most exceptional high school student. The various questions at issue will inevitably emerge, if these points be insisted upon.

Good accounts are given in Trevelyan⁶ and Van Tyne's⁷ histories of the Revolution, and volume three of Channing's⁸ "History of the United States." Foster is particularly useful for this period. Tower's "Life of Lafayette"⁹ gives material on the attitude of France, and Perkins' "France in the American Revolution,"¹⁰ and Corwin's "French Policy" and the "American Alliance,"¹¹ both furnish effective backgrounds of European conditions. Franklin's "Works" give life and color that cannot be matched elsewhere.¹²

The diplomatic failure of the Confederation is an essential part of the general history of that period. It would be well, however, if the discussion of the problems at issue could be brought into close contact with their solution by the new government, notably in the Jay treaty with England and the Spanish treaty of 1795. Probably the most practical method is to thoroughly present the problems in connection with the Confederation, so that their solution may be simply and briefly enumerated among the successes of the new government.

Of course, the points to emphasize are that the treaty of 1783 did not create the conditions it attempted to describe, that the weak government of the Confederation was unable to secure its execution, and that the strong government that followed, by taking advantage of time and circumstance, was able to secure it. The essential nature of these problems, particularly the possession of the eastern bank of the Mississippi, should be brought out, the importance of the Indians, and the practical as well as the sentimental weakness of a government unable to secure the interests of its citizens. It is here the nature of the problems which is significant, rather than the actual course of the negotiations.

On the commercial problems of this period the material is abundant and easy to find. All the standard histories give it a proportional share of attention. On the western problems it is more difficult to get

⁶ G. C. Trevelyan, "The American Revolution." 3 vols. Longmans, Green & Co., 1899-1907.

⁷ C. H. Van Tyne, "The American Revolution." American Nation Series. Harper & Bros., 1905.

⁸ Edward Channing, "History of the United States." Vol. 3. The Macmillan Co., 1912.

⁹ Charlemagne Tower, Jr., "The Marquis of La Fayette in the American Revolution." 2 vols. Philadelphia, 1895.

¹⁰ J. B. Perkins, Boston, 1911.

¹¹ E. S. Corwin, to be printed by Princeton University Press.

¹² "Works," etc. Edited by W. T. Franklin. 6 vols. Philadelphia, 1808-1818; "Works," etc. Edited by Jared Sparks. 10 vols. Boston, 1836-1840; "Complete Works." Edited by John Bigelow. 10 vols. New York, 1887-1888; "Writings." Edited by A. H. Smyth. 10 vols. New York, 1905-1907.

² Harper & Bros., 1905.

³ Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1901.

⁴ C. R. Fish, "American Diplomacy." Henry Holt & Co., 1915.

⁵ Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914.

what one wishes. Special articles by McLaughlin,¹³ Cox,¹⁴ Leavitt¹⁵ and Turner,¹⁶ discuss various phases of it. Roosevelt's "Winning of the West"¹⁷ is perhaps the most available of all.

From 1793 to 1815 politics and diplomacy were so closely connected that no separate treatment can be given; yet to a certain extent the various diplomatic phases can be isolated sufficiently to make them stand out distinctly. Probably not much will be lost by settling up the Confederation problems, even to that portion of the Jay treaty dealing with the treaty of 1783, before Genet lands in America. From 1793 to 1801 the relations with France can be made the pivot. The main object will be to show the tendency of the European war to involve the United States, by reason of popular interest and the French treaties of 1778 and 1788. The evolution of the idea of American neutrality, its success under the leadership of Washington, the final abolition of the treaties, and the reason for Washington's warning against similar entangling agreements in the future, form a continuous argument. The subordinate thread is that of French ambition in the West.

McMaster¹⁸ gives the classic picture of the popular attitude during this period, and all standard histories give the formal facts. On the western side usable material is more scant. A number of articles by Turner in the "American Historical Review"¹⁹ furnish almost all that can easily be found. On the other hand, beginning at this point, the annual messages of the Presidents, found in Richardson's collection,²⁰ furnish good material for simple topic work.

The Louisiana Purchase follows naturally this emphasis on French relations. It will obviously be treated by itself after the domestic policy of the Jefferson administration has been dealt with. Diplomatically its interest is far less than its importance, and the major attention should undoubtedly be given to its domestic aspects. Material is abundant. The author does not believe that Henry Adams' great work on the administrations of Jefferson and Madison²¹ is useful for secondary schools, but it is an

unfailing resource for the teacher. Ogg's "Opening of the Mississippi,"²² on the other hand, is useful to teacher and student alike.

The deferring of a specific treatment of our problems with England from 1793 to 1803 is justified by the fact that practically the same problems run through the two periods, 1793 to 1801, and 1803 to 1812, that the commercial clauses of the Jay treaty, the political importance of which is not here in question, were ephemeral, and that a valuable unity may thereby be secured. The essential thing is to make plain the fact that neutrality is not a matter of decision alone, but that it presents problems, particularly through a nation's trade. The similarity of these problems to those of 1914-1916, make it interesting as well as important to clarify the points of view. The various expedients adopted by the United States to make good its position, as well as its neglect of the obvious expedient of arming, demand all the consideration that can be given them. Of course, the chief figure in American diplomacy from 1803 to the spring of 1812 was Napoleon, but while this fact may be brought out, the intricacies of his policy are among the things to be avoided. On the other hand, the fact that in 1812 a new generation of statesmen seized the throttle, and the effect of their control in bringing on the war cannot be too much emphasized, and in determining the direction of their hostility, the clash of American and British over the Indians and the fur trade must not be neglected as it is by so many American historians.

A clear and concise account of commerce and international law for this period is given in Mahan's "Sea Power in Its Relation to the War of 1812."²³ Clear and still more concise is Walker's "Making of the Nation."²⁴ For the younger generation of statesmen, use McMaster and lives of Clay.

The negotiations at Ghent repay the most careful study, for nowhere else is the operation of diplomacy more clearly to be observed. It is the best chance to make the student live through a diplomatic negotiation. With the "Memoirs" of J. Q. Adams,²⁵ and his "Writings,"²⁶ the "Writings" of Gallatin,²⁷ and the "Diary of James Gallatin,"²⁸ the letters and diary of Bayard,²⁹ and letters of Clay and Crawford,³⁰ as well as the "American State Papers, Foreign Relations, and the British papers which have recently been published by the Massachusetts Historical Society,"³¹ there should be in many schools a good opportunity for topic work. The story and the

¹³ A. C. McLaughlin, "Western Ports and British Debts." American Historical Association Report, 1894, 413 ff.

¹⁴ I. J. Cox, "Indian as a Diplomatic Factor." "Ohio Arch. and Hist. Quar." Vol. 18, 542.

¹⁵ Orpha Leavitt, "British Policy, 1783 to 1793." Wis. Hist. Soc., Proceedings, 1915.

¹⁶ F. J. Turner, "English Policy toward America in 1790-1791." "Am. Hist. Review," Vol. 8, 78 ff.

¹⁷ Theodore Roosevelt, "Winning of the West." Appleton & Co. Various editions.

¹⁸ J. B. McMaster, "History of the People of the United States," Vol. 1.

¹⁹ Genet's "Projected Attack on Louisiana," "Am. Hist. Review," Vol. 3, 650 ff.; "Policy of France towards the Mississippi Valley," Ibid., Vol. 10, 249 ff.; also "Diplomatic Contest for the Mississippi Valley," "Atlantic Monthly," Vol. XCIII, 676 ff.; 807 ff.

²⁰ J. D. Richardson, "Compilation of the Messages and Papers of the Presidents," 10 vols. Washington, 1896-1899, and supplements.

²¹ Henry Adams, "History of the United States," etc. 9 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. Various editions.

²² F. A. Ogg. New York, 1904.

²³ A. T. Mahan. 2 vols. Boston, 1905.

²⁴ F. A. Walker. Charles Scribner's Sons. Various editions.

²⁵ J. Q. Adams, "Memoirs," etc. 12 vols. Philadelphia, 1874-1877.

²⁶ "Writings of J. Q. Adams." Edited by W. C. Ford. Macmillan Co. 5 volumes so far issued.

²⁷ Edited by Henry Adams. 3 vols. Philadelphia, 1879.

²⁸ "A Great Peace Maker." Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914.

²⁹ Am. Hist. Assoc., "Report," 1913. Vol. 2.

³⁰ "Am. Hist. Review," Vol. 20, 108-129.

³¹ Vol. XLVIII.

method is what is important here; precision and detail. Mahan's account is again good. There is a new work by Updyke on the "Diplomacy of 1812,"³² and nearly all the standard histories are useful. A comparison of the several secondary accounts would afford good topic work, where sources are not available.

This careful study should be supplemented by emphatic attention to the points, that, while the treaty left international law, and in fact all subjects with which it dealt, as they were at the beginning of the war, the defeat of the Indians by the Americans eliminated them forever as a factor in American diplomacy, and that the defeat of Napoleon put an actual end to neutral grievances by ending neutrality. That the war, though an American defeat or at least a draw, was followed by many of the effects of a victory.

The most striking effect of the Treaty of Ghent, or, perhaps, more accurately, of the Battle of Waterloo, was that the United States was able to turn its attention to its domestic affairs. The attention devoted to diplomacy may be diminished and still more concentrated on certain episodes. The first of these is the enunciation of the Monroe Doctrine. This belongs in large measure to the general codification of the results of thirty years of national experience, of which Marshall's decisions are another example. Its place is best immediately after the treatment of those decisions. It should be clearly explained as a policy and not as a law, and should be connected with Washington's policy of neutrality. Of the circumstances that produced it, the independence of Latin America is most important. It is unnecessary to go into the niceties of European politics, or for the high school student to know whether Monroe or Adams was the author of the Doctrine, but no student should carry away the idea that Canning was its author. He should appreciate that it inaugurates a struggle between the United States and England for the dominant influence in Latin America. It doubtless carries unrealities too far to add here the corollaries of the Doctrine which have been added to it from time to time.

Paxson's "Independence of the South American Republics,"³³ Coolidge's "United States as a World Power,"³⁴ Kasson's³⁵ and Edington's³⁶ books on the Monroe Doctrine and Temperley's "Canning"³⁷ are among the most usable works. The text of the document is available in many places, as in Richardson's "Presidents' Messages,"³⁸ and it should be used.

In the meantime, the country has been expanding, and it continues to expand. Somewhere the student

must be made familiar with the processes and the problems of that expansion, but it is not necessary to take up every case. Probably the best is that of Texas. Although the treatment of Texan annexation should carry the movement back to 1820, the subject need not be introduced until after the break between Tyler and Clay produces the deadlock which allowed new issues to arise. In addition to making the student understand the manner in which Americans entered foreign territory and the problems that they brought home to their government, the relation of expansion and slavery should be made clear. This struggle for the control of foreign territory should be connected with that for the control of territory already within the United States. It should be understood that expansion was halted because of the anti-slavery sentiment, and the discussions should include the political exploitation of expansion during the fifties, and should end by pointing out that the compromise attempts of 1861 failed on the point of the status of territory which it was believed would soon be annexed.

Dr. J. F. Jameson's "Natural History of Expansion," in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE,³⁹ should certainly be used. G. P. Garrison's "Texas"⁴⁰ gives the best account of the expansion movement. G. L. Rives' "United States and Mexico"⁴¹ and J. S. Reeves' "American Diplomacy Under Tyler and Polk"⁴² give almost all that is essential. For topic work, E. D. Adams' "British Interests and Activities in Texas,"⁴³ J. H. Smith's "Annexation of Texas,"⁴⁴ and the Texan diplomatic correspondence published by the American Historical Association,⁴⁵ are very useful.

In addition, before the Civil War, it is only necessary to note the importance of the trans-continental transportation problem, and the fact that the easiest routes lay across foreign territory, and gave rise to new problems. It is unnecessary to go into the details of canal diplomacy at this point.

The diplomacy of the Civil War can best be treated in connection with the blockade. No treatment of the war should fail to show the supreme importance of that factor, the effort of the South to break it by means of diplomatic action, and the thwarting of that effort by the Union. The effect of the division of the Union in inciting France and Spain to disregard the Monroe Doctrine should also be observed. For all these points the standard histories, particularly Rhodes, provide material.⁴⁶

The Treaty of Washington, however, deserves special treatment. Here the chief consideration is the question of arbitration. Previous arbitrations

³² Johns Hopkins Press, 1915.

³³ Philadelphia, 1903, 1916.

³⁴ Macmillan Co., 1908.

³⁵ J. A. Kasson, "Evolution of the Constitution, and History of the Monroe Doctrine." Boston, 1904.

³⁶ G. B. Edington, "The Monroe Doctrine." Boston, 1904.

³⁷ H. W. V. Temperley, "Life of Canning." London, 1905.

³⁸ Vol. 2, 209-219.

³⁹ February, 1914.

⁴⁰ American Commonwealth Series, 1903.

⁴¹ Charles Scribner's Sons, 1913.

⁴² Johns Hopkins Press, 1907.

⁴³ Johns Hopkins Press, 1910.

⁴⁴ "Annexation of Texas." New York, 1911.

⁴⁵ "Reports," 1907, Vol. 2; 1908, Vol. 2.

⁴⁶ For a brief summary, see C. F. Adams, "Life of C. F. Adams." American Statesman Series, 1900.

may here be referred to, as well as the subsequent movement. As to the merits of the questions involved, it is at least desirable that the students do not fall under the spell of the Sumner delusion, but not much stress should be given to the personal side. It is important, however, that they should be made to see the responsibilities of neutrality. Chamberlain's "Charles Sumner and the Treaty of Washington,"⁴⁷ C. F. Adams' "Life of C. F. Adams," and Moore's "Arbitrations"⁴⁸ give the best accounts, though Rhodes is reasonably good. At this point the question of the international position of the naturalized American citizen should receive attention, for which Moore's "American Diplomacy" is the safest guide.

From 1873 to the Spanish War, diplomacy should be neglected in the secondary school. The only exception is Blaine's policy of reciprocity, and that not because of its intrinsic importance, but because it is the easiest to handle of the various attempts of diplomacy to foster commerce in times of peace. It should be possible to emphasize the activity of the government in this direction by securing a number of consular reports. This treatment should be connected with that of the industrial expansion of the eighties.

The only necessary introduction to the Spanish War is a review of our relation with Cuba. This could be obtained in Hart's "Foundations of American Foreign Policy,"⁴⁹ Chadwick's "Relations of the United States and Spain,"⁵⁰ or J. H. Latane's "America as a world power,"⁵¹ or A. E. McKinley's "Island Possessions of the United States,"⁵² and the latter three will serve to carry the student through the war to peace.

With the revival in the character and interest in diplomacy after the Spanish War, more comprehensive treatment is again desirable. This may be called for convenience a readjustment after the war, for an appreciation of the problems involved is more important than the variations, minor in fact, of treatment.

First among these is the position of the United States in the Pacific, which calls for a review mentioning the whaling industry, the Oregon and California questions, the Alaska purchase, the annexation of Hawaii, the first Japanese treaty and the immigration of Chinese. The acquisition of the Philippines, the "Open Door" and the controversy over the dismemberment of China must be brought out. By all odds the best material is Foster's "American Diplomacy in the Orient,"⁵³ Mahan's "Interest of America in International Conditions,"⁵⁴ Coolidge's "United States

as a World Power." Latane's "America as a World Power," and McKinley's "Island Possessions" are all useful.

The relations with Spanish America form another unit. The additions to the Monroe Doctrine by Polk, Grant and Olney, deserve mention, and the attempt of Blaine to produce closer relations. In dealing with Roosevelt's policy of the Big Stick, the student should be made to see that if the United States is to keep out European interference in America, it must in some way perform, or provide for the performance of, the duties which European nations owe to their subjects in those countries. The relation of immigration to international relationship, the underpopulation of Latin America, and the entrance of Japan into the problem, should be emphasized. The triumph of the canal policy, and its cost in the distrust of Latin America, cannot be overlooked, but the conflict of policies as to whether it be a United States or an international canal need not be raised. The Wilson policy in Mexico, with the A B C intervention, and the renewed attempt at Pan-American co-operation link history with politics. On these difficult subjects the difficulty is to avoid silly books. Latane to 1907 and the American Year Book after 1910 are safe guides, but good material is scant. An energetic teacher could secure "Reports" from the Pan-American Union at Washington, and make them the basis of good topic work.

With a reference to the present war, for which material can be obtained—aside from the newspapers—from the "American Year Book," the subject may well close, though the canal treaty with England and the toll question give a valuable example of the observance of international good faith, and the superabundant publications of the peace societies would make good topic material on arbitration and The Hague Court.

Of the matters which have been omitted, some like the Webster-Ashburton treaty and the Florida treaty, will naturally be mentioned as important facts in their proper connection. They are omitted because it is felt that they can be dismissed without special diplomatic treatment. The relegation of the fisheries to this class may be unduly radical. The continuous attention of the government to an American industry peculiarly placed has an illustrative value, as of course for the more mature student it has a high technical value, but the author has in mind the high school student wading through the intricacies of this century-long controversy, and advises throwing it out.

Finally the treatment should not be vague where it is brief. A historical generalization should be as exact as a scientific one; it has no place if it does not classify knowledge. Facts and factors may be omitted, but don't fill in the blanks with sloppy brush work—leave it blank. The work in diplomatic history will be worthless unless somewhere, and several possible places are indicated, it is detailed. The student should also learn accuracy by an attention to phrase and nomenclature. For instance, an "Order

⁴⁷ Cambridge, 1902.

⁴⁸ J. B. Moore, "History and Digest of International Arbitration," etc. 6 vols. Government Printing Office, 1898.

⁴⁹ A. B. Hunt. Macmillan Co., 1901.

⁵⁰ Vol. 2. Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

⁵¹ "American Nation," Vol. 25.

⁵² Lee and Thorpe's "History of North America," Vol. 20. Philadelphia, 1907.

⁵³ J. W. Foster, "American Diplomacy in the Orient." Boston, 1903.

⁵⁴ Boston, 1910.

in Council" is "issued," not passed; a treaty may be "passed" in this country, but not in England, generally one says it is "signed" or "ratified." The student should know a minister from an ambassador—even if only as a bigger guy—and should really

know how they both differ from a consul. Treaty, neutrality, belligerent, convention, admiralty court, naturalization, blockade, search, contraband, reciprocity, and such words should remain forever domesticated in the student's vocabulary.

How the Furs Came Down from the North Country

BY L. A. CHASE, M.A., INSTRUCTOR IN HISTORY, HOUGHTON HIGH SCHOOL, HOUGHTON, MICH.

You can go from New York City right across the continent, touching at Edmonton, Alberta, on the way, and ride in a boat almost every mile of the distance. You can go north from New Orleans the whole length of the continent, coming out at the Arctic Ocean, using a boat for your conveyance almost all the way. And from St. Louis you can take side-trips to Hudson's Bay, to Quebec, or to Richmond, Va., and still have a boat-ride all but a very few miles of the route. I have not seen this fact pointed out in any of the geographies, but you can find the proof of it in any of the geographies themselves. Perhaps we should leave this statement as a sort of geographical puzzle to be solved; but the fact is that all portions of these water routes have been used by people in just this way at one time or another.

Now if one can imagine a time when there were no airships, no automobiles, no canals, and no railways, one sees that the statement above is really important. Ever since the time of Columbus, men have wished to get across North America, and the easiest way to do it was once to follow the lakes and rivers, for these made an almost continuous waterway from east to west and from north to south, even where the continent was the widest.

Right at the center of North America, and not many miles apart, rise the greatest lake system and the greatest river system in the world. West and northwest of this point is the prairie—interminable miles of it—undulating away to the western mountains and the frozen north. It is an immense country, only now being opened up by settlement. At one time only two sorts of people had any real interest in it—the Indian and the trader. It has been a wonderful game country, and not long ago the Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company said as much fur is coming out of it now as at any time. This is saying a good deal. A hundred years ago they were taking out of this country—it is not a mere guess—hundreds of thousands of skins every year. As the result of a season's work on the Red, Mississippi, or Saskatchewan Rivers, a single trader might fetch out a thousand to twenty-five hundred beaver skins, two hundred bear skins, and great quantities of foxes, martens, minks and other valuable furs, and if he brought them safely to a Lake Superior port, a handsome profit was assured. But it is eleven hundred miles from Port Arthur on Lake Superior, to Edmonton, Alberta, and yet great quantities of fur were brought much farther than this. How was it done?

To-day one can take a sleeper at Duluth or Port Arthur and go almost anywhere west or northwest, although I will not say that Dr. Cook went to the North Pole in a Pullman, as one writer has stated. But a hundred years ago, when Henrys and Thompsons brought out big loads of fur from nineteen hundred miles up the Saskatchewan, and from away beyond that, the transportation problem was a hard one. From western Lake Superior, the upper Mississippi, or the lower Missouri, there were three or four thousand miles of comparatively clear sailing out to civilization. Beyond Lake Superior and the upper Mississippi, is a wonderful network of lakes and rivers as far north as a man cares to go. These lakes and rivers were the great arteries of the old fur trade. If you will find the northern boundary of the United States where it leaves the west end of Lake Superior, you may trace it through a succession of small lakes and rivers as far as the Lake of the Woods on the boundary between Canada and Minnesota. This was the great trunk line of the old fur traders. It led them into Lake Winnipeg, and from Lake Winnipeg it is water all the way to Hudson Bay, and almost all the way to New Orleans, New York, Portland, Oregon, and to far-away Fort MacPherson on the Arctic Ocean at the mouth of the Mackenzie River. At one time or another the old fur traders went over all these routes, and their experiences make some of the most romantic episodes of the old days. And this was all for the purpose of allowing well-to-do people in Europe to have fine beaver hats to wear and to deck themselves out in costly mink, marten, and otter furs.

Where you found a fur trader in the far-away north country, you usually found a Scotchman or a Frenchman; but, whether his name was Donald or Francois, he was quite sure to be a man who could provide himself with almost everything he needed out of the bounty of nature close at hand. Not to speak of the ordinary provision of food, clothing, and shelter, the Indian had taught the trader to see in every object around him some article of use that we think can only be produced in a factory. White earth or clay gave him mortar and whitewash for his buildings; and if the Indian used this same clay for soap, the white man made his soap out of tallow and salt, which, as one of them said, seemed "an excellent article, hard and dry, and almost white. When cut in cakes it looks good, and they say it washes as well as English soap." He cut a wheel from the end of a log. He made ropes from the hair of the horse or the

buffalo. We have forgotten how useful the buffalo once was. If the Indians used a shoulder-blade of a buffalo as a hoe, and his paunch as a water-jar, the trader fettered his horses with lines woven from his fore-lock, made boats from his hide, and on the treeless country north of the upper Missouri built campfires of buffalo-chips. Buffalo tongue was perhaps the most prized meat on the fur frontier.

When the trader traveled, he went in his own conveyance, made of such material as the north country afforded. He must pass up and down for thousands of miles on rapid rivers, by lake and by portage, getting boat-loads of rum, powder, fire-arms and knives, and all sorts of knick-knacks into the fur country; and, when these had been traded for the peltries of the Indians, getting thousands of pounds of these peltries out to market.

On a day in September could once be seen on the lower Red River of the North, or the Saskatchewan, a file of canoes slowly making their way up-stream. It was the outfit of one of the big northwestern fur companies making its way to the winter post to trade with the Indians. They often went so far into that north country that European news was a year in getting to them; but they were men who had lost their connection with civilization and did not care to restore it. They might have their families with them—even to the family cat and kittens—stowed away in the boat; or they established temporary family relations among the Indians to whom they were going. There was no Puritanism on the far frontier. Packed in each boat were four or five men, perhaps a woman—one man in the bow, another in the stern to steer, the rest distributed among kegs of sugar, whiskey and wine, powder, salt, bags of flour, and shot, bales of goods, tobacco, and kettles, cases of guns and irons. These were the articles the Indians wanted, especially the spirits. Nothing would deliver them of their furs so quickly as the liquor. Nine months later the "outfit" would go down the river, but then the boats would contain no spirits, no powder and shot, tobacco and salt, and gaudy clothes; for the Indians had drunk the liquor, then tried the new guns and knives—first on one another, then on beasts and other enemies, had adorned themselves in their apparel, and then gone out to hunt for more furs with which to buy more spirits, guns, and knives with which to have another fight all round. In the down-river boats were packs of furs and pelts, weighing usually ninety pounds each. There were also bags of pemmican made at the posts, potatoes raised at the post garden, kegs of grease obtained from the game killed, kegs of gum, tents, cart wheels, and now and then a cow.

Like almost everything else used in the fur country, these boats were made on the spot, usually by the men at a trading post. The stronger bateaux, some forty feet long, were made of boards sawed out by the men and nailed with nails turned out at the post. Since such a boat required a thousand nails, the labor must have been very great. But skin boats were also much used. To make these skin canoes, a frame of willows was first put together in the shape of a canoe;

then one or two buffalo hides—according to the size of the boat—were stretched over this frame. If two skins were used they were cut square at the shoulders and sewed together with sinews. The sides are fetched round the gunnels and lashed fast with leather cords. The hair was turned inward. These skin canoes would carry surprisingly heavy loads, but to prevent them becoming water-logged, they had to be taken out of the water frequently and dried. Of the same material the Indians on the upper Missouri made a "bull-boat," like a great tub composed of skins drawn over a frame of willow. The paddle consisted of a stick about five feet long, split at one end. In this "split" was lashed a board a half-foot by two feet in size. With this propeller the Indians worked their way across wide rivers, spinning round like huge water-bugs, but managing somehow to make the opposite shore, without deviating more than a mile from their objective. Very different from this ungainly craft was the delicate, treacherous birch-bark used in the eastern game field. The "maitre canot" was described as eight fathoms long and one fathom and a half wide, covered with birch bark and sewed very close with fibrous roots. Such a fragile boat would carry ten men or four tons each. Into these boats were put the goods for the Indians, very carefully. The dry merchandise was put in bales of about eighty pounds, the rum, powder, and shot in small kegs. Great care had to be taken not to tear the sides of these canoes, but such accidents were frequent and might easily be costly. When no boat was to be had, sometimes a raft of brush was improvised for the purpose of crossing a river.

But there were places and seasons for which any kind of boat was useless. When the sub-Arctic climate was clapped down on the northern country, the streams froze deep and long. If the trader then would go far and be comfortable, he used his "cariole." One style of cariole was made of boards plained smooth, turned up in front about two feet and coming to a point there while two and a half feet wide behind. A box was fixed on this bottom and covered with dressed skins. The top of the box was partly covered, so that the rider—there could be but one—sitting within the box, wrapped in his robes and leaning against a cushion, could, as one of them said, "bid defiance to the wind and weather." A horse between shafts or three or four dogs afforded the drawing-power. Sometimes the cariole was simply made by drawing moose skins over a few timbers, well secured with a line.

There are many graves along the rivers in the old fur country. It usually happens this way. These rivers are large, swift and treacherous. The boat, heavily loaded with men and goods, is trying to get through a piece of bad water. Someone loses his head, or the boat hits a hidden rock, and it is all up. If the men are strong swimmers, they may get out, but they do not always make it. Here is one instance of many. "An outfit" had been toiling for several days over the old water "trail" from Grand Portage on Lake Superior to Lake Winnipeg. They were at

last on the Winnipeg River. An eye-witness tells the story: "I perceived the canoe on the north side coming off to sault (shoot) the rapids. She had not gone many yards when, by some mismanagement of the foreman, the current bore down her bow full upon the shore, against a rock; upon which the fellow, taking the advantage of the situation, jumped, whilst the current whirled the canoe around. The steersman, finding himself within reach of the shore, jumped upon the rock with one of the midmen; the other midman, not being sufficiently active, remained in the canoe, which was instantly carried out and lost to view amongst the high waves. At length she appeared and stood perpendicular for a moment, when she sank down again, and I then perceived the man riding upon a bale of dry goods in the midst of the waves. We made every exertion to get near him, and did not cease calling out to him to take courage and not let go his hold; but, alas! he sank under a heavy swell, and when the bale arose the man appeared no more."

Among the people of the old fur trade, the French were the most picturesque. They fitted in perfectly with the life—were good workers, good drinkers, exuberant, and got on well with the Indians. How a party of them appeared as it started out from the post on upper Red River, going into the hills after fur, can be seen from this description of an on-looker. "Antoine Payet, guide and second in command, leads the van, with a cart drawn by two horses and loaded with his private baggage, cassettes, bags, kettles, and mashgueminctes. Madame Payet follows the cart with a child a year old on her back, very merry. Charles Bottineau, with two horses and a cart loaded with 1½ packs, his own baggage, and two young children, with kettles and other trash hanging on to it. Madame Bottineau has a squalling infant on her back, scolding and tossing it about. Joseph Dubord goes on foot, with his long pipe-stem and calumet in his hand; Madame Dubord follows on foot, carrying Joseph's tobacco pouch with a broad bead tail. Antoine Thellier, with a cart and two horses, loaded with

1½ packs of goods and Dubois' baggage. Antoine LaPointe with another cart and horses, loaded with two pieces of goods and with baggage belonging to Brisebois, Jasmin, and Pouliot, and a kettle hung on each side. Auguste Brisebois follows with only his gun on his shoulder and a fresh-lighted pipe in his mouth. Michel Jasmin next, like Brisebois, with gun and pipe puffing out clouds of smoke. Nicholas Pouliot, the greatest smoker in the northwest, has nothing but pipe and pouch. Those three fellows, having taken a farewell dram and lighted fresh pipes, go on brisk and merry, playing numerous pranks. Domin Livernois, with a young mare, the property of Mr. Langlois, loaded with weeds for smoking, an old worsted bag (Madame's property), some squashes and potatoes, a small keg of fresh water, and two young whelps howling. Next goes Livernois' young horse, drawing a *travaille* loaded with his baggage and a large worsted mashguemcate belonging to Madame Langlois. Next appears Madame Cameron's mare, kicking, rearing, and snorting, hauling a *travaille* loaded with a bag of flour, cabbages, turnips, onions, a small keg of water, and a large kettle of broth. Michel Langlois, who is master of the band, now comes on leading a horse that draws a *travaille* nicely covered with a new painted tent under which his daughter and Mrs. Cameron lie at full length, very sick; this covering or canopy has a pretty effect in the caravan, and appears at a great distance in the plains. Madame Langlois brings up the rear of the human beings, following the *travaille* with a slow step and melancholy air, attending to the wants of her daughter, who, notwithstanding her sickness, can find no other expressions of gratitude to her parents than by calling them dogs, fools, beasts, etc. The rear guard consists of a long train of twenty dogs, some for sleighs, some for game, and others of no use whatever, except to snarl and destroy meat. The total forms a procession nearly a mile long." All this was a hundred years ago.

The Development of the Modern High School Library¹

BY MARY E. HALL, LIBRARIAN, GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

Twenty years and more ago we hailed with joy the opening of special reading rooms for children in our public libraries. To-day, those of us who are interested in library work with older boys and girls feel much the same enthusiasm over the possibilities of the modern high school library. In the children's library movement we saw a new and wonderful chapter written in library history. In this year's organized national campaign for better high school libraries we see a fitting sequel to that chapter.

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While the work of the high school library is an utterly different problem from the work of the children's room, high school librarians gladly acknowledge their indebtedness to the children's libraries for many characteristic features of the new high school library. The lure of the room is very much the same—pictures, plants, interesting bulletins, walls lined with books in attractive bindings, tables strewn with magazines and fascinating illustrated editions of the world's great books, and, best of all, a pervading joyous atmosphere of freedom. The room may fulfil all its proper pedagogical functions as a reference collection for obtaining information, a training school in best methods of securing that information, a labora-

tory for special topic work and collateral reading in connection with the subjects in the curriculum and yet fail of one of its highest functions if it fails to be a place of inspiration and recreation as well. This reading room feature of the new high school library, its "browsing corner" suggested by the Smith College Library, or its "bait shelf" suggested by Professor Abbott, of Columbia University, has values which cannot be measured by any class examinations. Rackham and Maxfield Parrish, Dulac, Abbey and Hugh Thomson do more to cultivate a taste for good reading and the ownership of books than all the formal written tests on supplementary reading that were ever faithfully prepared by the conscientious teacher of the past. Dipping into the many books of many kinds which make up a carefully selected high school library is a liberal education in itself and a very real means of culture. Just to glance each day over the current magazines or the ever-changing bulletin boards with their ever-changing collections of pictures, clippings and suggestive reading lists, stimulates intellectual curiosity and widens a pupil's interests.

To realize what we mean by a "modern" high school library one must actually see it in action. Even the high school librarian who spends her days year in and year out in this library feels each day the fascination and wonder of it all. To have as your visitors each day, from 500 to 700 boys and girls of all nationalities and all stations in life, to see them come eagerly crowding in, 100 or more every 40 minutes, and to realize that for four of the most important years of their lives it is the opportunity of the library to have a real and lasting influence upon each individual boy and girl, gives the librarian a feeling that her calling is one of high privilege and great responsibility. One has constantly in mind the splendid summing up of this opportunity by Dr. Atkinson in his article on "Reading for Young People" (*"Library Journal,"* April, 1908, 33: 134): "The reading of the adolescent period, which is conceded to be the most critical period of a man's life, has not received the attention that it should. The mental life of the adolescent is distinct from the mental life of the child and so is the problem of his reading. I believe there is greater need for looking after the matter of reading during the adolescent period, when habits of a lifetime are formed, than for any other period. During the period of youth, when the interest is so easily aroused, when the sympathies are so keen, when the mind is so open to impressions, and the memory is so tenacious in retaining them; when the tastes are as yet unperverted, and the capacity for forming ideals is so strong; when the natural appetite for reading is so marked and when the conditions of life give so much leisure to indulge it—at this time, if ever, is there necessity for wise and skilful guidance in the use of books. Only arouse a love for the best in literature, and little thought may then be given to what the men and women of the future will read."

Now that the leaders in the educational world are becoming quite as enthusiastic as librarians over the possibilities of the new type of high school library,

the near future will reveal many new developments. As school superintendents, high school principals, teachers of English and history, indeed any teachers who believe in the influence of books and good reading, visit these twentieth century libraries, or, better still, work within the school in close co-operation with the librarian in making the library all that it ought to be, important suggestions are being constantly made as to its larger usefulness to the school. The place which the library is to hold in the high school of the future has already been recognized. Dr. Darwin L. Bardwell, district superintendent of high schools and in charge of the high school libraries of New York City, writes: "It may confidently be asserted that the most potent single agency in the modern cosmopolitan high school is the library." (*"Educational Review,"* April, 1915.) Likewise Mr. Jesse Davis, principal of the Grand Rapids High School, writes: "The school library of the future will be the proof of the extent of the transformation of a high school from the medieval system of the past to the new standards and ideals in high school education of this twentieth century. I believe I am safe in saying that the school library will be the proof of the educational value of the new curriculum. When our schools have outgrown their cloister days and are aiming to prepare our boys and girls for the life they must live in a workaday world the library will be the open door to the opportunity of the present." (N. E. A. Proceedings, 1912, p. 1267.)

What we understand to-day by a "modern" or "twentieth century" high school library is largely the growth of the last ten years, most of these libraries having been established or reorganized since 1905. If we were to define briefly this new type we might sum it up in a paragraph which would show at least how widely it differs from the high school library of the past and the library still to be found in the great majority of high schools to-day. It is a carefully selected collection of books, periodicals, pamphlets, clippings and illustrative material, chosen to meet the needs of the average high school student, organized according to modern library methods by a trained librarian who can devote her entire time to the school library, and who is thoroughly interested in boys and girls. This library has a spacious and attractive reading room seating anywhere from 50 to 125 pupils, it is maintained by adequate annual appropriations and is used by every department in the modern high school for information, as a means of awakening or stimulating interest in a subject, and for all that such a room may do by way of suggestion and inspiration. It is the headquarters for many reading clubs conducted by teachers and librarians working in co-operation, it is used for classes trained by the librarian in the use of the library reference books and tools, it becomes a social center for afternoon and evening receptions to groups of students and to their parents, it works in close co-operation with the public library of the city and encourages the constant use of its resources.

The activities of the modern high school library are

fast outgrowing the one reading room and other rooms are being added. As we look over the plans of the newer library rooms we find in addition to the reading room a librarian's office or workroom in the Spokane High Schools, a teachers' reference room in the new Hutchinson High School of Buffalo, a library classroom which is to be fitted up in the Girls' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., during the next school year. This proposed library classroom is one of the contributions made by teachers to the development of the high school library and is the result of suggestions found in a "Report on English Equipment," by Vincil Coulter ("English Journal," March, 1913), and the practical suggestions made by Professor Abbott, of Columbia University, as one of his contributions to the work of the New York Library Club's committee on school libraries. The library classroom adjoins the library reading room and should be fitted up to have as little of the regular classroom atmosphere as possible. It should be made quite as attractive as the reading room and have its interesting pictures on the walls, its growing plants and its library furniture. Chairs with tablet arms on which pupils can take notes, one or more tables around which a small class can gather with their teacher and look over beautiful illustrated editions or pass mounted pictures and postcards from one to another, should surely form a feature of this classroom. Walls should have long stretches of bulletin space on which a teacher may place pictures and clippings to illustrate or add interest to the hour's lesson. There should be cases for large mounted lithographs such as Mr. Dana lends to schools and cases for maps and charts, lantern slides, mounted pictures, and clippings. A radiopticon or lantern with the projectoscope in which a teacher can use not only lantern slides but postcards, pictures in books and magazines, etc., is a most important part of the equipment. For the English work and, indeed, for German and French, a Victrola with records which will make it possible for students to hear the English and other songs sung by famous singers, will help them to realize what a lyric poem is. This Victrola will be particularly helpful to classes studying Palgrave's "Golden Treasury." A small platform for classroom dramatics completes the important features of this new room which adds greatly to the library's opportunity for service to the entire school. Simple stage property in the shape of table, chairs, etc., and background and curtain furnished by the art department at little expense add much to the pupils' enjoyment of a play of Shakespeare or Sheridan's "Rivals," etc. This room will be used by the librarian for all her classes in the use of reference books and library tools, it will constantly serve teachers of history, Latin, German, French, and be a boon to the departments of physical and commercial geography. After school it will be a center for club work. Reading clubs can be made more interesting by the use of the lantern, and dramatic clubs will enjoy the platform for amateur plays. All through the day it will be in use. Classes will be scheduled for a regular class recitation there when a teacher

wishes the aid of the room in awakening interest. A class about to begin reading Homer's "Odyssey" in first year English will be given some background for the enjoyment of this work by a library hour in this classroom. Students will gather around the tables on which are opened Dr. Schliemann's books with their interesting illustrations, a teacher will read aloud his story in his autobiography of how he as a little boy came to have this burning desire to "dig up Troy." The various illustrated children's versions of the "Odyssey" will be there, particularly Church's "Odyssey" for boys and girls, with its colored pictures. There will be books on Greek customs, mounted pictures in color such as the three favorite pictures of Circe by Maxfield Parrish, Dulac and Burne-Jones, classical dictionaries, mythologies and books of travel in Greece, such as Barrow's "Isles and Shrines of Greece." Each student will be supplied with a Gayley or Bulfinch to take home and a list of interesting myths to read before beginning the real study of the "Odyssey." In this room they can talk more freely than in the busy reading room and such a library hour leads to many happy study periods in the library reading these books or looking at these pictures as they reach certain portions of the story of Ulysses. This is merely a suggestion of how a teacher uses such a room. The same kind of a library hour will stimulate interest in Virgil, in a lesson in medieval history, etc., the lantern being used whenever it will help.

In such a library as we have tried to picture in this paper we have traveled a long way from the high school library with which most of us were familiar, the dreary room with its glass cases and locked doors, its forbidding rows of unbroken sets of standard authors, its rules and regulations calculated to discourage any voluntary reading. If it was open to the pupils at all it was likely to be associated in their minds merely as a place of set tasks where so many pages of collateral reading had to be done. There still exist high school libraries which do not even provide a reading room, where books are shelved in the principal's office and kept under lock and key or locked in cases in classrooms. We still find the reference facilities consisting of one long table in a corridor and a few dictionaries and an encyclopedia. But the doom of these libraries has been sealed and we feel that it is only a question of a few years before they will go the way of many other relics of the dark ages.

How did this new type of library come to be and who were the pioneers—the teachers and librarians of vision who saw possibilities in the forlorn excuse for a school library with which most of us were familiar twenty or more years ago? We have not data at hand to write a full history of this development of the modern high school library. We wish we might name the devoted teachers of English and history and other subjects who, in certain high schools, with the care of the library thrust upon them as an additional burden, with no appropriations for books and only a tiny library room, yet made the school

library for many pupils much the delightful spot the modern library is to-day. These teachers often bought with their own money attractive editions of books and lent them to pupils, collected pictures and clippings much as we do in our vertical file now, and filled the windows with growing plants to make the room attractive. But such rooms were the exception rather than the rule.

It is a particularly pleasant privilege in surveying briefly the part that librarians have had in this movement to pay tribute to some of those well known and honored in the library world who long ago, before the high school library appeared in the indexes to our library periodicals, helped lay the foundations for the high school library of the present and future. High school librarians in the early days found some interesting suggestions for their work in the paper by Miss Katharine Sharp on "Libraries in Secondary Schools" (*"Library Journal,"* December, 1895). She had a clear vision of what these school libraries might be. To those of us who know Mr. Brett it is no surprise to find that as early as 1895, when most of us were absorbed in the new work with children, he saw also the need of a good high school library for the older boys and girls. In that year he opened a branch of the Public Library in the Central High School of Cleveland with Miss Effie L. Power (now supervisor of work with children in Pittsburgh) in charge. Mr. Brett's contribution was the suggestion that if the Board of Education would not or could not maintain the kind of a high school library needed, the public library might step in and help by supplying books and a trained librarian. In 1899, four years after Mr. Brett's experiment, Dr. Frank P. Hill, at that time librarian of the Newark Public Library, wholly unaware of Mr. Brett's branch library in the high school, started a similar branch in the Barringer High School, Newark, granting an annual appropriation for books and attending to the cataloging of them, making the high school a delivery station of the public library, but providing no trained librarian. Since then, as we all know, important co-operative arrangements for high school branches under joint control of Board of Education and public library have been made in Portland, Ore.; Madison, Wis.; Passaic, N. J.; Kansas City, Tacoma, Gary, Manchester, N. H.; Somerville, Mass.; Pawtucket, R. I., etc. In many cities the only hope of establishing a modern high school library is in such action from outside, as boards of education and school superintendents are apathetic or cannot make the necessary appropriations for books and librarian's salary. What private individuals and associations did in supporting kindergartens and manual training schools until school boards recognized their educational value that, in some cities, the public library must do, to prove the value to a high school of a good high school library.

But in other cities the school boards themselves early recognized the importance of developing the high school library through the appointment of a librarian with some training who could devote her whole time to the work instead of closing the library

part of the day as she taught certain classes. Among these libraries were two which have had an important influence in introducing systematic instruction of high school students in the use of a library, the library of the Central High School, Detroit, Mich., and the Central High School, of Washington, D. C. In Detroit, Miss Florence M. Hopkins was a pioneer in this work and outlined a course of eight lessons which were considered of such value to the English students that credit was granted in the Department of English for work done in connection with these library talks and quizzes. In the year 1898 Dr. Francis Lane became principal of the Central High School, of Washington, D. C. He had served as high school librarian when an English teacher and knew from experience the necessity of a librarian who could devote her whole time to the library. Dr. Lane as librarian had introduced the plan of having new pupils report to him for instruction in how to use the library and this work was further elaborated into a course similar to that of Miss Hopkins by the librarian appointed in March, 1898, Miss Laura M. Mann, whose interest in the possibilities of the library led her to take a summer course in Library Economy with Mr. Fletcher at Amherst and who had given her services to the Central High School for some months previous because of her interest in high school boys and girls.

Other librarians who early saw the need for library instruction of high school pupils and whose influence brought it about in certain high schools, were Miss Mary W. Plummer, Mr. John Cotton Dana, Miss Imogene Hazeltine, Miss Irene Warren, Miss Julia B. Anthony, of Packer Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. Finney, of the University of Michigan, and Miss Rathbone, of the Pratt Institute Library School. These names are merely a few of those which might be given, and are chosen because their work in high schools and articles in educational and library journals have had an important influence.

As far as can be ascertained, the first library school graduates appointed to high school libraries were Miss Mary Kingsbury, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1900; the present librarian of the Girls' High School, Brooklyn, in February, 1903; Miss Bertha Hathaway, Morris High School, New York City, in September, 1903, all of Pratt Institute Library School, and Miss Celia Houghton, Albany High School; Miss Mary Groves, East High School, Rochester, both graduates of the State Library School at Albany, and appointed about 1905. Others there probably were, but their names are not known to the writer. Since 1905 more than 50 library school graduates have been appointed to high school positions, 10 of these being in New York City. Boards of education are rapidly being convinced that the establishment and maintenance of high school libraries on a modern library basis is a paying investment in all that such a library means in the life of a high school, and where the library is wholly under the board of education high school principals are urging that it be considered not only a recognized department of the school, but the most important department, inas-

much as its work affects that of all other departments. Instead of one librarian we find a head librarian and often one or two assistants, college men and women with library school training. Many leaders in the educational world who are aiding in this movement for better high school libraries feel that our ultimate aim must be a type of high school library which holds the same place as a department and integral part of the modern high school that the library now holds in our most progressive universities and colleges. They believe that the librarian should be appointed by the school board as a member of the faculty with the same standard of qualifications as for any other high school teacher or head of department, and that the library should be administered under school board control, but in the very closest possible co-operation with the public library. Mention should be made of the work of some of the most progressive high school libraries under school board control, e. g., the Gilbert School, Winsted, Ct.; William Penn High School, Philadelphia; High Schools of East Orange and Newark, N. J.; of Albany, Rochester, New York City, N. Y.; Grand Rapids and Detroit, Mich.; Spokane, Wash.; Oakland and Los Angeles, Cal. In all these the library has from the beginning been maintained by the board of education as an important feature of the school.

The following states have been particularly progressive in introducing this new type of high school librarian and have done much through the influence of State education departments to set up standards as to what a high school library should be: Minnesota, Oregon, California, New York, Michigan, and New Jersey. Nowhere has the state set up such splendid standards for the libraries of the small high schools as in Minnesota, where every teacher in charge of a library in a high school receiving state aid must have at least a summer course in library training. In California the rapid progress in the development of high school libraries promises to put that state at the head of the list of states having the largest number of up-to-date high school libraries in charge of trained librarians. Much of this is due to the pioneer work of Miss Ella M. Morgan, appointed as librarian of the Los Angeles High School in 1903, and to Miss Emma J. Breck, teacher of English in the University High School, Berkeley, and formerly serving as librarian and teacher in the Oakland High School.

In the new campaign which has just been inaugurated our slogan must be, "A live twentieth century high school library in every city high school in the country."²

Library Training In Normal Schools

REPORT OF A COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

At the annual meeting of the American Library Association in Washington, D. C., in May, 1914, a conference of normal school librarians was held which resulted in the appointment of a special committee on library training in normal schools. This was constituted as follows: Lucy E. Fay, librarian of the University of Tennessee, Chairman, Delia G. Ovitz, librarian of the Milwaukee Normal School, and Mary J. Booth, librarian of the Eastern Illinois Normal School. The purpose of the committee was to outline a standard course of library training for normal schools. This committee sought the co-operation of the library department of the National Education Association and accordingly a like committee, the names of whose members are subscribed, was appointed by that organization at its annual meeting in St. Paul in July of the same year.

The two committees agreed to divide the work. The A. L. A. committee undertook to gather information as to what courses are being given in the normal schools and on that basis to propose a series of standard courses. The N. E. A. committee, for its part, agreed to approach elementary and high school authorities in an effort to learn what sort of library training those persons who are in charge of elementary and high schools regard as most desirable. The A. L. A. committee made its report at the annual meeting of that society at Berkeley in June of the present year.

The N. E. A. committee sent out to a hundred school supervisors representing all parts of the country a letter explaining the purposes of the committee, accompanied by the following questionnaire:

WHAT SHOULD A TEACHER KNOW ABOUT THE USE OF BOOKS AND LIBRARIES?

Please check the items which you consider of first importance.

- I. Elementary school teachers should know
 1. The best books for the grade they teach.
 - a. For home reading.
 - b. Connecting with the subject she teaches.
 - c. To read aloud.
 - d. For stories to tell.
 2. The best encyclopedias for graded schools.
 3. Books about children's reading and story telling.
 4. How to judge books for usefulness and real worth.
 5. The best printed lists of children's books.
 6. The best editions of standard children's books.
 7. How to buy books economically.
 8. The book resources of her town, county and state.
 9. How to use books effectively.

² Any readers of this article who can furnish data for a fuller history of high school libraries will confer a favor by communicating with the writer.

10. How to teach the use of indexes in books; the dictionary; encyclopedias.
11. Library technique as follows:
 - a. How to mend books.
 - b. When a book should be re-bound.
 - c. How to keep a record of the books belonging to the library, i. e., an inventory or accession record.
 - d. The best way to keep a record of the books loaned.
 - e. How to arrange the books in the library so that the books on the same subject may be easily found, i. e., to classify.

II. High school teachers should know

1. The best books on their special subjects.
2. Interesting books for home reading for high school girls and boys.
3. The best general encyclopedias.
4. Encyclopedias of special subjects.
5. The best magazines for high schools.
6. The best lists of high school books.
7. How to use books to advantage.
 - a. Dictionaries, encyclopedias, general reference books.
 - b. Magazine indexes.
 - c. Indexes in books.
 - d. Classroom libraries.
 - e. Special editions.
 - f. In special subjects; e. g., vocational guidance.
 - g. In reading for pleasure.
8. How to co-operate with the public library.
9. Library technique as follows:
 - a. How to mend books.
 - b. When a book should be re-bound.
 - c. How to keep a record of the books belonging to the library, i. e., an inventory or accession record.
 - d. The simplest way to record books loaned.
 - e. How to arrange the books in the library so that the books on the same subject may be easily found, i. e., to classify.
 - f. What catalogue helps are available.
 - g. How to make a card catalogue (?).

III. Normal-training department teachers in high school should know

1. The best children's books for rural schools.
2. Books of methods suited to the cadets in training departments.
3. How to interest the cadets in the school library as a part of their school equipment so as
 - a. To care properly for the books.
 - b. To keep the necessary records.
4. How to give the students standards for judging children's books.
5. How to buy books to best advantage.
6. How to use the state school library lists.
7. Useful pamphlets for country schools.
8. How to care for pamphlets.
9. How to use the school library

- a. In connection with the teaching.
- b. For the pupils' home reading.
- c. In community service.

Sixty answers were received. Several of the correspondents checked all of the items, declaring that all are important. The majority selected such points as I, 1, a, "Books for home reading," and were inclined to pass over as of less importance such items as "Best encyclopedias for graded schools," "How to buy books economically," "When a book should be rebound," "Special Editions," "How to make a card catalogue," and "How to keep the necessary records." It was clear from the checking that school men prize least the more technical aspects of the teacher-librarian's training; that they most desire their teachers to know what books children can and should use and how to train in the use of them.

The spirit of the replies was most reassuring. There was plainly a consciousness of the need of more and better library training than teachers are now generally given and a disposition to welcome the movement to standardize and extend such training in the normal schools. The following excerpts are typical:

"You have asked me to check items of first importance, which I have done, but they are all of importance. I am very much in favor of your plan to secure instruction of this kind in the normal schools. It is a move in the right direction."

"Teachers do not need to know library science, but need to know books and how and when to use them, especially books pertaining to subjects they are teaching. Training department teachers need to know a great deal about library work. I cannot omit any points under that head."

"It seems to me that if a course in library instruction were offered for teachers in training schools, all of the subjects indicated on the outline which you have sent me might well be considered. I have checked, however, those that seem of most importance for the teacher, having in mind the fact that someone specially trained would take care of the others. I believe that a definite library course should be offered to all prospective teachers, and that there should be a larger appreciation of the field of literature, with a keener discrimination in regard to authors and subject matter."

"Your letter of April 9th with questionnaire was submitted to our librarian. She reports as follows: 'I have answered the checked items from the side of what a teacher should know about a library, drawn from my experience here. I suppose there is a regular librarian in charge. If so, it is not necessary for a teacher to know how to mark, accession, or keep a record of the books, but if it is a rural teacher who has charge of a school library as well as teaching, the problem is quite different. From the way the questions are worded, I judge they apply to elementary and high school teachers rather than to rural teachers.'"

"We have a children's library in addition to our general school library and co-operate with our State

library in this respect. We have a librarian and an assistant who devote their entire time to this work. Through our English and history teachers in the high school, every pupil is required to spend at least one to three periods of forty-five minutes each week in supervised reading and acquaintance with books."

"Your questionnaire very strikingly illustrates the truth of the suggestion that it would be quite well for any teacher in any work to know quite well everything that touches his work. This truth, however, should not make us forget the other truth that we are human and have our limitations. To let teachers feel that those in charge of administration or supervision are unconscious of these natural and necessary limitations and unsympathetic with people who have to suffer and work under them would destroy their confidence in the value of our administration and supervision.

"I think the questionnaire is very suggestive, and, instead of stating dogmatically that the teachers in any of the departments must necessarily know all of the things suggested in connection with library work in their department, you can do the most good by placing such a list before them as indicating the ways in which they may render themselves more efficient through the aid of books."

"I was very much interested in the outline of your committee's report on library instruction in normal schools. I do not see how it is possible to comply with your request, namely, to check the topics of first importance. It seems to me that all of these topics are of first importance. I do not see how any satisfactory course could omit a single one of them. This may mean more time than is ordinarily accorded in normal schools, but it seems to me that library instruction is one of those practical phases which have been sadly neglected and to which we must give more time."

After examining the answers to the question sheets and reviewing the reports and articles on the subject which have appeared in the *Proceedings of the N. E. A.* and in the *Library Journal* and other similar periodicals, the committee formulated the following

STANDARD COURSES IN LIBRARY TRAINING FOR STUDENTS IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

1. A course in the use of the library for the personal assistance of all normal school students, both while they are in school and afterward. Minimum time, ten class periods.
2. A course in directing the reading of children, including the use of libraries so far as this is possible by them. Minimum time, fifty class periods.
3. A course in library organization and administration for teacher-librarians. This should prepare a few students in each normal school each year to take charge of the libraries in elementary and rural schools and to be of general assistance to supervising officers in building up and administering libraries. Elective, minimum time, one hundred class periods.

To comment upon each of these courses, the first should include at least the following topics: im-

portance of training in the use of books—the possibilities of the library; classification; arrangement in the library; the catalogue; reference books; periodicals; indexes; public documents; the investigation of subjects; how to read for various purposes; book selection. All these topics should be presented in concrete fashion by means of actual problems and demonstration. This course should be given in the library itself by the librarian.

The second course should include at least the following topics: the importance and possibilities of children's reading; the problem of directing it; kinds of children's books and value of each; standards of choice; grading; adaptation from the sources; story-telling; dramatization; graphic illustration; the use of pictures, maps, etc.; how to get books in the library of the school and in the public library; library rules and regulations; the care of books; what books to buy for one's self. This course should usually be given by a member of the English department with the co-operation of the librarian, and it should involve practice in conducting lessons in general reading and in the "library hour," as well as in the handling and care of books and lists.

The third course, which should be elective, should be open to high school graduates who take all the regular work in English and history and who wish to elect the library course in order to add this to the usual equipment. (It is assumed that normal schools which undertake to train librarians as such will look elsewhere for assistance in making out their courses.) The topics taken up should be of a strictly practical nature and should keep steadily in view the actual opportunities which will lie before the graded and rural school teacher. In addition to the topics included in courses one and two, the following should be covered: selecting and ordering of books; accessioning; labeling; cataloging; arranging on the shelves; issuing; mending; binding; attracting and directing readers; co-operation with public libraries; helpful library agencies; community service. All these topics should be taught in the library and should be enforced by apprentice work.

The above outline is submitted as representing the minimum standard. It omits, for example, the interesting topics concerning the history of book making and the book trade which Miss Ovitz suggests,¹ but it covers, it is believed, the really essential features.

The material for conducting such courses as are outlined above has now been fairly well sifted and organized; as aid to supervisors, librarians, teachers, and students who may be interested in one or more of the courses, the committee submits the following brief list of

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- Signed by Committee:
- JAMES FLEMING HOSIC, Chairman Chicago Normal College.
- MARTHA WILSON, Library Supervisor, State Department of Education of Minnesota.
- WILLIS H. KERR, Librarian, State Normal School, Emporia, Kan.

Testing Collateral Reading

BY MITCHELL B. GARRETT, SAINT LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY, CANTON, N. Y.

A generation ago the heavily burdened teacher of history was content to sit behind his desk and propound the questions which were printed for his benefit at the end of the chapter. Too often his eye glanced along the page when a question was asked to see if the proper answer was returned. Within the present generation, however, the trained teacher has appeared in our midst and with his advent there has come a change in the method and purpose of history teaching. Gone now are the charts of names and dates and highly condensed generalizations that used to frown down upon young America from above the blackboard. Gone also are the printed questions at the end of the chapter and in their place have appeared references for collateral reading and topics for reports. The teacher still permits history to remain an informational study, but he now asks that it be studied rationally; he no longer insists on the memorization of unrelated data.

This improvement over the old method has, I think, been generally adopted by teachers in the high

schools; but progressive teachers think that the improvement can be carried further. Without lessening the emphasis placed on the acquisition of historical information other things may be emphasized. For instance, there is such a thing as historical imagination to be stimulated. This means, I think, that a student should be encouraged to transport himself in imagination to distant periods and enter with sympathy into the life of the people—that is, to walk the streets of ancient Athens or converse with the monks of the middle ages. There is also such a thing as historical perspective to be acquired. This means, I take it, that the student should be led to see for himself that Demosthenes, despite the glamor that surrounds his classic personality, was really not so great a man as Gladstone or Bismarck. And lastly, there is such a thing as discipline in historical thinking. This seems to be equally as important as the acquisition of historical information. In giving this discipline the teacher is expected to make the student see for himself that history is based on original

documents and that wherever the documents are lacking there is no history. As soon as the student understands that there are gaps in the evidence, he has already taken a long step toward historical thinking. The next step is to show him how authorities often differ widely in the interpretation of evidence and that he himself is quite free to try his hand at the game. In this way the student is taught to approach facts in a historical spirit. He may soon forget ninety-nine and nine-tenths per cent. of all the facts he learns in his history courses, but he cannot so easily outlive this discipline in historical thinking.

Now the text is invaluable to the teacher for the purpose of imparting information. Our best texts are written by ripe scholars who have taken pains to make the books accurate and to develop the subject systematically. But the best text is always inadequate for discipline in historical thinking. In the first place, the student invariably comes to the conclusion that all the history he needs to know is shut up between the covers of a single book; and in the second place, he has little occasion to form independent judgments or to interpret facts for himself. The information is ready for him in the form of sugared capsules and he never bothers to find out where the doctor got the ingredients. The student, therefore, should be led to consult many books and discover that his text is only a small unit in a great body of historical literature; he should also be encouraged to notice how much or how little is known about the past and understand how controversies might easily arise over the interpretation of the past. This intellectual awakening of the student will have more lasting results than a drill, however thorough it may be, in a text book.

Collateral reading, then, should be required of all high school students; but the question arises, how may it best be done? In the first place, books must be selected which a student may read with interest and with an understanding heart. In my opinion only a very small percentage of our historical literature is suitable for the purpose. Books in a foreign language, of course, must not be thought of in this connection. Even graduate students read French and German with great difficulty. Also books of a special or technical nature must be ruled out of court in a summary manner. This elimination leaves on our shelves the great standard books that look so formidable in their substantial covers and their many volumes, and the briefer handbooks. The wise teacher will, of course, encourage the student to handle the standard books, but he will not require the student to read much more than the titles. Even of the briefer books an elimination will need to be made, for many a handbook will prove a burden more than students can bear. What teacher, I wonder, can persuade students to read and relish Bury's "History of Greece," or Pelham's "Outlines of Roman History?" After books of this type have been laid aside, what do we have left? A small number of readable books, and these alone should be adopted for class purposes. If Greek history be taken as an illustration, there is a readable "History of Greece" by Oman, which,

though entirely military and political in character, is eminently fitted to supplement a good text. There is also for ancient history—incredible as it may seem—a readable source book available in two volumes by W. S. Davis. These two books alone will be well-nigh adequate for collateral reading in the subject. In a very short time the students will wake up to the fact that history is based on sources, for even the dullest will see that Oman has borrowed, "cribbed" if you please, whole chapters from the writings of two old worthies who answered to the names of Herodotus and Thucydides. A fine exercise would then be to "check up" a few pages of Oman with the source extracts published by Davis, and after a while it will surely occur to a student to ask where Herodotus and Thucydides got their information. When that question is asked the teacher should rejoice, for that is the beginning of historical thinking. After a while a readable biography of Pericles or Alexander the Great may be added to the two books mentioned, and then the list of collateral reading for Greek history will be complete. In exactly the same way select readings for the courses in medieval, modern, English, and American history can be made.

Having now selected the books, how shall the teacher proceed? He should ask the school authorities to buy the selected books by the dozen copies. If there are forty students in the class, there should be perhaps eighteen copies of the books on the library shelves ready for use. The small number of books will enable the teacher to make definite assignments and hold the students to a definite line of work. Incoherence and confusion, so often the bane of library work, can be entirely avoided.

The next question is, "How can the teacher test the collateral reading?" My answer is that it can be done best by the oral quiz. To require the students to make an abstract of their reading assignment sounds well in theory, but in actual practice it is unsatisfactory, if not indeed a farce. Where the method is tried the teacher gives minute instructions, which he cannot follow himself, and the student, in the hope of pleasing teacher, labors assiduously for a few days on the task and then turns in a long list of proper names and unimportant dates interspersed with a few short sentences copied verbatim from the printed page. The teacher becomes annoyed, of course, and talks incoherently about the necessity of omitting all the unimportant details, and the student becomes disgusted, concludes that history is a nuisance and resolves to avoid as much of it as possible in the future. The unmitigated drudgery incident to the taking of reading notes is the death of historic enthusiasm among young and immature historians. Likewise the written report on an assigned topic is unsatisfactory. Usually the student has not had sufficient training in English composition to make the game worth the candle. The teacher who criticises the report and points out the inaccurate expressions and loose constructions is really doing the work of the language department, which is an unfair division of labor. If, however, the oral quiz is adopted for

testing the collateral reading, the drudgery so painful to the student is avoided, the work of the teacher is made less burdensome, and there is a chance that life may be infused into the subject. Certain days in the week may be devoted exclusively to the collateral reading. Since the aggregate number of pages will never be large for any assignment, the teacher can make a thorough preparation and plan his method of approach before the class meets. During the recitation he ought to be able for once to drop the drill method of instruction and stimulate a taste for history. This may be done in a number of ways. For instance, one day the students may examine the source material with open book in hand, and on another day

the teacher may ask questions or make statements calculated to bring out the human element in the story. In this way the teacher can give the student a pleasant introduction to a great literature and in the end the teacher may so vivify the subject that the student will go on reading without compulsion.

In conclusion, I would repeat that a teacher might do well to relieve his students of as much drudgery work as possible and cultivate among them a taste for reading; that the most satisfactory method of testing the reading is the oral quiz; and that the test is satisfactory when the students begin to read books on their own initiative.

Are History Libraries Used to Best Advantage?

BY LEMUEL PITTS, JR., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, PUEBLO, COL.

The history teacher in the average high school with its scanty equipment for history reading faces in the work of collateral reading a discouraging problem. He is confronted with about three hundred pupils studying some phase of history. They are in groups ranging from 75 to 125, the members of each group being concerned with the same phase of history, and directed by teachers to the same references for topics at the same or nearly the same time. The problem is, how with the equipment to provide in sufficient numbers suitable books with proper treatment of topics. Rather perhaps it is to provide a workable scheme for using all the books to the best advantage.

On the face of things the average high school library must be supplemented very largely by the city library. Even with the two together conditions are rarely ideal. There are antiquated books, scholarly books, local authors, few duplicates of our particular favorites, books placed on the shelves by some previous faddist, books of a poorer quality but useful in parts. Some of the books no doubt have available chapters, but we know them not. Some valuable works that do not circulate freely cause the librarian to distrust our further requests for what we would like. In the local library a certain book of that type, authoritative, interesting and readable left the library three times in five years. Two of those three times, arriving at a certain topic, the American history teacher used it and once directed a pupil to it. Considerable money was wrapped up in the set. Some volumes of Fiske had not moved as often as that, whereas his "Revolution" and "Critical period" had been rebound and duplicated. The same could be said of course of Grote's "Greece" and the somewhat simpler Harrison's "Greece," one stagnating, the other circulating freely. The size, print, paper, and other qualities prevent the free use of some books. But certainly they should all be used in whole or in part or else be cast out.

Most of us have our own pet schemes or lack of scheme of library work which never entirely satisfy

us and which never quite reach perfection. There are certain salient reasons why many of our schemes fail to get the best use from the books in the library. We depend, often, for our references on syllabi and bibliographies prepared by others on plans not in accordance with ours. In our selection from these lists we eliminate those that on the face of them do not appeal to us, useful as they might prove to some pupil. Many syllabi pay little or no attention to so-called historical fiction. May not certain chapters of Hugo's "Les Misérables" on Waterloo, some chapters of Lytton's "Harold," some of Churchill's "Crisis," some of "Coward of Thermopylae" serve as well as the "Stories of the Nations" series? At least they could be used to supply some pupil for whom there are not enough copies of the standard histories. Further, syllabi make little use of an available chapter here and there in economics and sociology texts, and rare indeed do we find "canned" references to magazine literature. Surely files of "North American Review," "Century" or "Atlantic" in the fall of 1876 and early 1877 would be available for Hayes-Tilden controversy. They might be prejudiced to be sure, but is it not more a sign of thinking to have a prejudiced opinion to read than no opinion at all?

Some schemes fail because they are spasmodic results of a temporary enthusiasm, and therefore lack permanency. The excellent reference of last year is lost or forgotten this year. Man's memory is not infallible, and housecleaning occurs in most regulated homes. To attempt to carry these references in one's head is not only useless but it is impossible of achievement. It is surely a waste of time and effort for the teacher to go over each succeeding year the same old work of preparing a list of available references, similar to the list prepared previously. It destroys interest and takes time that he should be spending in finding new references, or familiarizing himself with a few of the old ones. We use to-day an article in a current magazine. If good, it is surely just as use-

ful a year from to-day for the same topic, but what was it? We have forgotten. Our work lacked permanency. We have to do over again the mechanical details which when once done properly, like the filing of a letter, ought not to tax again our memories or our thoughts. Moreover what of the new teacher coming into our midst? Is he to waste his time and energy doing work which should have been the property of the school?

Our reading system is meagre and discouraging because there is a lack of definite knowledge of the resources at our doors. The librarian cannot be expected to know all the material at hand on every conceivable subject. He has some other fields that demand some familiarity with certain books. We as history teachers often do not know and have no permanent record of all available material actually present in the library. This lack of information is what causes stagnation of certain costly formidable sets. They do not move unless attention is called to them, and use is demanded by the teacher. Needless to say that too many references from some books are as irritating as too few from others.

What can we do to get the fullest and most satisfactory use of our local libraries? How can our work be made more practical even at the loss of the profound attitude? We can make a list containing every available book in the local library; a list containing history, biography, sociology, political economy, orations, great debates, magazine articles. We can by the printed lists of historical fiction learn exactly what books of such type the library possesses. From indexes to current literature under appropriate heads select for our use such articles as treat of historical matters, being sure of course that the magazine referred to is the property of the library. Having made such lists the work of examining for exact references can be divided among the history teachers each according to his special lines, ancient, medieval, modern, English or American. Then the group should decide on what would be a reasonable assignment for pupil according to his progress. Each book can then be examined through table of contents, index or whatever scheme seems best adapted to the conditions for reasonable, readable and practical references, perhaps finding only one usable reference in a particular book. A bibliography reference to Grote might be suitable for a college student, but the same reference would hardly be adapted to high school freshmen.

The next task, when each of these individual references is tabulated on library card, stating topic, author, book and exact pages, will be to sort the cards, *not alphabetically* but by chronology or periods of historical development. The surprise will be at the number of references thus found and adapted to use. For instance, in American history in the libraries at the writer's disposal over 1200 different available reference topics, without any great amount of duplication of books, were found. For medieval and modern history the number was over 1500. In order that the pupils may use the card system thus evolved, cards should be numbered in some way best adapted,

presumably consecutively, leaving spaces here and there for references as the library grows.

Here then is a working basis and if the work is divided properly will not entail too much working. The next step is the matter of assigning the work. Before assigning, it would be well to take an inventory through your class of available books in private libraries, so that in assigning, special work can be assigned to those pupils who have access to private libraries, thus widening the possibilities of library work. By assigning work for several weeks ahead and giving each pupil enough references so that he may have some latitude of choice and by assigning to groups who naturally associate frequently references as far as possible from the same books a greater use of the library, a greater circulation of books, a greater amount of honest careful reading can be attained.

The plan has many advantages, one of which is, that it is not a figment of an active imagination; it actually works without the everlasting bugbear, "I was unable to get a book." It saves time of pupil by giving him a definite thing to do. Library hunting is hardly a suitable game for a youth who doesn't know his game when he sees it, and therefore fails to bag it. It acquaints him with many books whose titles even he would otherwise never learn. It teaches him to use the library, where the open shelf system is employed, without fretting the librarian. Besides, but I hesitate to mention it, it puts an end to many corrupt practices so well known to every teacher demanding reports, because very rarely will it be necessary to duplicate references enough to encourage dishonesty. Through increased circulation of "dead heads" and past acquisitions to the library it will be easier to convince the library board of the necessity of additional books.

It is, of course, at best a "scheme." Perhaps once in a while, though, a thought to "schemes" or methods is as essential as constant thought and discussion as the presentation of content, schemes may sometimes be as useful as subject matter without scheme or method. It is not millennium—it is by no means entirely new—it is a combination of several useful things, and is a substitution of permanency for ever varying chaos.

NOTE.

The first American Conference on Immigration and Americanization was held in Philadelphia, January 20 to 21. The formal meetings were addressed by publicists of national importance. A number of special conferences were held to discuss the best way of teaching English and Civics to immigrants. The subject of preparedness and of hyphenated Americans was interjected into the discussion during the course of the meeting. Strong support for the Conference came not only from prominent citizens, but also from the United States Bureau of Education, the United States Department of Labor, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, and many other associations. A discordant note was introduced in a letter from Mr. Frank P. Walsh, chairman of the Federal Committee on Industrial Relations condemning the purpose of the Conference as "attempting to set up a pernicious paternalism."

Standards For Community Civics*

BY D. W. HORTON, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, MISHAWAKA, INDIANA.

Civics as the science of civil government is *persona non grata* at present in live municipalities with fully socialized high schools. Governmental anatomy, constitutional dissection, abstract generalizations about unrelated and distant facts, dry dissertations upon the exclusive powers of the Senate, the revenue-originating powers of the House, the executive check on the legislature, the interpretation of the Federal Constitution according to the aristocratic purpose of its founders—this sort of civics is soon to become an heirloom alongside its colleague, the history of dynasties, military campaigns, and constitutions. We are done with this abominable rubbish. Why? Because (1) we no longer believe in the study of civics for the exclusive purposes of mental discipline; (2) dry, abstract, foreign, unrelated facts will not produce the qualities of good citizenship; (3) the complex social, economic, and industrial urban life of to-day demands a new emphasis in civics teaching.

What is this new emphasis to be? Here is what various men who have studied the problem think about it. Wilcox in a recent book, says, "Progress has been made in many places toward vital instruction in civics in the schools, but the work is just begun. School civics still tends to instruction in forms of governmental organization, not to a vital understanding of the activities of government and its relation to life."¹ Dunn in the preface of his admirable little text on community civics says, "The function of the public school is to produce a good type of citizenship. There is no other sanction for the existence of the public school." Charles DeGarmo declares, "It is not so much a training in the technical machinery of government that the youth needs, as general intelligence and public spirit."² Municipal misrule is at once the shame and despair of democracy. It looks as if the people were permanently condemned to be the victims of chronic exploitive groups of political bandits. The remedy is a training in citizenship that fits the young by social intelligence, social disposition, and social efficiency to participate freely and effectively in political co-operation in all its manifold aspects. J. Lynn Barnard of the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia, makes this statement, "Civics is itself a life—a growth—a point of view—democracy in the making."³ Again he says, "The need for such training was never more urgent. One decade of rational civics teaching in our public schools, beginning with the home environment and

reaching out into the wider problems of government, would put an end to boss rule in city, state, and nation."⁴ Paul H. Hanus states that public education should train efficient citizens—men and women who recognize and appreciate the common interests of our democratic society.⁵ For this purpose he recommends a course in civics and vocational guidance. Such a course, he says, should comprise a survey of the industrial and commercial life of the city, with especial reference to types of vocations, and should deal also in a nonpolitical and concrete way with the problems of good city government.⁶

An excellent statement of this position is made by the chairman of the Committee on Social Studies, of the commission of the N. E. A. on the reorganization of secondary education: "Good citizenship should be the aim of the social studies of the high school. Facts, conditions, theories, and activities that do not contribute rather directly to the appreciation of methods of human betterment have no claim. Under this test the old civics, almost exclusively a study of government machinery, must give way to the new civics, a study of all manner of social efforts to improve mankind. It is not so important that the pupil know how the President is elected as that he shall understand the duties of the health officer in his community. The time formerly spent in the effort to understand the process of passing a law over the President's veto is now to be more profitably used in the observation of the vocational resources of the community. In line with this emphasis the committee recommends that social studies in the high school shall include such topics as the following: community health, housing and homes, public recreation, good roads, community education, poverty and the care of the poor, crime and reform, family income, savings banks and life insurance, human rights versus property rights, impulsive action of mobs, the selfish conservatism of tradition, and public utilities."⁷

We get still another angle on the question from Walter Weyl, who says, in essence, that the framework of our national, state, and local government is but a shadow democracy, a high-hung Utopia. Furthermore, he says that the Constitution is the political wisdom of dead America; it was in intention and in essence undemocratic. The greatest merit and the greatest defect of the Constitution is that it survived. It should have been recast every generation. Moreover, Weyl says, the real civic problems of to-day are denoted by the shrill political cries which fill the air. Men speak of sensational inequalities of wealth,

* Paper read before the Gary Conference on History Teaching, held by the University of Indiana, February 26, 27, 1915.

¹ Delos F. Wilcox, "Government by All the People," 277.

² Charles DeGarmo, "Principles of Secondary Education," I, 320.

³ J. Lynn Barnard, "N. E. A. Report, 1913," 89.

⁴ Ibid., p. 90.

⁵ Paul H. Hanus, "School Efficiency," 7.

⁶ Ibid., 53.

⁷ United States Bureau of Education, "Bulletin," 1913, No. 41, p. 17.

insane extravagances, strident ostentation; and, in the same breath, of vast, boss-ridden cities, with wretched slums peopled by all the world, with pauperism, vice, crime, insanity, and degeneration rampant. We disregard, it is claimed, the life of our workmen. We muster women into dangerous factories. We enroll in our industrial army the anæmic children of the poor. We create hosts of unemployed men, whose sullen tramp ominously echoes through the streets of our cities. Daily we read of the premature death of American babies; of the ravages of consumption and other diseases; of the jostling of blindly competing races in factory towns; of the breakdown of municipal government; of the collusion of politicians, petty thieves, and malefactors of great wealth; of the sharpening of class conflict; of the spread of hunger-born degeneration, voicing itself in unpunished crimes of violence; of the spread of social vice; and again he speaks of the stealing of governorships and legislatures; of the distributing of patronage; of all the frauds and tricks that go to make up practical politics.⁸ William D. Lewis, principal of the William Penn High School, Philadelphia, champion of the socialized high school, says our high schools should be developing an intelligent understanding of the meaning of our democratic government and social order, and an aggressive and efficient loyalty to public welfare.⁹

From these quotations, representing widely differing points of view, it is not difficult to reach the conclusion that the new emphasis demanded in civics teaching to-day is the subordination of the analysis of national and state government to a study of the real civic problems of the community. Community civics is the keynote in civics teaching to-day. Just what is implied by the term community civics? By community civics is meant the civic problems which directly affect the community, the matters which touch us vitally as individuals of a group from which we derive certain benefits and to which we owe definite allegiance. For some questions, the community may be the precinct, ward, or city group; for other matters the community may be the county group, the state group, or the national or even international group. If it be a question of a petition against a saloon, or the election of an honest alderman it is the ward group; if it be a question of pure and efficient water supply it is the city group; if a question of working prisoners with short-time sentences on the roads, the county is the community; if it be a problem of workmen's compensation, the state would be the community; if a problem of the control of patent medicines, food adulterations, or the importation and sale of opiates, the nation is the group; and if it be the question of laying mines in neutral waters we share concern and responsibility with the international group.

Take war, for instance. Is there any doubt that

war is a civic problem? War should be taught as a civic problem. But it should be taught in its reality. Our histories do not put war in the right light. The ghastly cost in life and money; the enormous economic destruction; the misery, famine, and poverty; where the burden falls; the awful after-results, the crime and graft—these are neglected and the glories and virtues of it praised.

Returning to community civics, it is clear from the foregoing illustrations that for some civic problems the nation may act for us as a community, just as in other instances the city acts as a group. It is perfectly obvious, therefore, that many civic problems which derive their importance to us from their local interest may reach through county, state, and national government. Where this is true, the problem should be studied in its various governmental relationships; nevertheless, if efficient citizenship is the test of civics teaching, any civic topic is of value solely because of its local and vital importance to the community.

What are the fundamental civic problems of most American cities? Without going into detail, these can be pretty well stated under four main heads.

James Bryce says, in essence, that people in a free government have failed to respond to the good of the whole, to the general interest. He advances the three following reasons for the failure of democratic government:

(1) *Lack of civic intelligence of issues and men.* People are ignorant of civic problems, they do not know what good paving is, a clean street, good city planning, proper and safe sewerage, garbage disposal, city forestry, public sanitation. People do not understand the civic values of recreation through playgrounds, parks, gymnasiums, and pools as contrasted to the commercialization of city amusements. There are no definite standards in the public mind for efficient police, fire, and health protection. People elect their public servants and tell them to "go to it." They have not the ability to check up, supervise, or direct them. As a consequence a public officer must be almost a chronic thief or "scalawag" before public opinion is aroused against him.

(2) *Indolence and slackness in civic duty.* There is the business man who would rather turn a dollar than go to the polls. Then there is the man who considers his civic duty performed when he has been to the polls. Some men just vegetate and cause problems. Mr. A., a good man in a city of ten thousand voters, decides he will stay at home on election day because of pressing business and because his vote amounts to only one ten-thousandth anyway; but suppose Mr. B, and Mr. C, and five hundred other good men do the same thing. There is the good man who runs up against the slick-oiled political machine, becomes apathetic, decides the whole thing is based on pull and too rotten to be trifled with. The remedy is to energize people by the formation of civic habits, organize clubs and societies, and instill civic interest.

The fourth reason for the failure of democratic gov-

⁸ Walter Weyl, "The New Democracy," chaps. I-III.

⁹ William D. Lewis, "Proceedings of Indiana State Teachers' Association," 1914, p. 49.

ernment, we derive from a study of the social origin of the state, namely:

4. *The placing of the selfish and predatory interests of the small group above the public welfare.* Our civics text always starts out by saying that government originated with the clan, but generally fails to show that government is still rather clannish and tends to originate with the smaller group. The early clan had a double standard, and in that respect it was up to date. This is best shown by two columns of opposite attitudes, the first the intra-group virtues, and the second the extra-group virtues:

INTRA-GROUP VIRTUES

1. Mutual aid,
2. Fair-dealing,
3. Truthfulness,
4. Self-restraint,
5. Courtesy,
6. Submission,
7. Friendliness.

EXTRA-GROUP VIRTUES

1. Destruction,
2. Treachery,
3. Strategy,
4. Unbridled freedom,
5. Incivility,
6. Courage,
7. Hostility.

The attitudes in the first column were virtues when exercised toward one of their own clan, and those in the second column, virtues when used against a member of another clan; vice versa, the attitudes in the first column became vices when applied to one outside the clan, and those in the second column became vices when used toward one's fellow-clansman.

The extra-group virtues have not entirely disappeared and become vices yet. Corporations, industrial concerns, business men, economic and social groups, and politicians still exercise the extra-group attitudes against their competitors, opponents, and the people. The selfish interest of the small group is pitted against the public welfare, and all sorts of stratagems and treachery are used to befog the issue and throw dust in the eyes of the people. Each group has its own peculiar ethics, and small group consciousness. They always have their candidate, they are represented in the legislature, in the political convention, and in the newspapers.

5. *The party system of local government* is partly responsible for the inefficiency in free government. The party machine puts forth the argument of party loyalty. The force of party tradition is strong. Many vote the Democratic ticket in the city election because their grandfathers marched in an Andrew Jackson torch-light procession. Moreover, it requires some intelligence to vote, to fold the ticket correctly, and to split a ticket seems to require a degree of intelligence hardly reached yet by the average citizen. The result may be inefficiency in office, the raiding of the people's treasury by political bandits, the triumph of small group interests, pulls, rake-offs, license, and the stacking of the cards against the people.

I have endeavored to establish certain viewpoints and standards which will indicate the purpose, the subject-matter, and the method of a course in community civics. From the above causes of the inefficiency of free government we derive our aims, viz.: (a) to give civic intelligence; (b) to energize by the formation of the habits and the spirit of civic practice; (c) to enlist the sympathy of students in the public welfare and place it where it belongs, i. e., above the small group interests. These three aims would parallel the four main causes stated above, because a study of the striving of democracy toward reform would be included in the first aim of giving civic intelligence.

Taking the three aims of civics teaching, how may these aims be realized, if they are possible of realization at all? I am thoroughly convinced, after seeing it tried out, that this thing can be done. In Mishawaka we have taken the following measures to secure the above aims: (a) A tentative syllabus of community civic problems has been compiled for class use; (b) definite, practical, co-operative civic activities have been undertaken; and (c) wherever possible in connection with a civic problem the public welfare has been contrasted to the selfish interests of the small groups.

The plan of this syllabus is to place the emphasis on community civics. If a topic is affected considerably by its relations to the state and national groups, these relations are included as a matter of course, but not as a matter of form. Civics should have no water-tight compartments. The logical organization of courses in the high school is giving way to the psychological. The high school is being socialized by the reorganization of courses according to the interests of the students and the social interests of the community. The emphasis and method of a course in community civics can be illustrated by a diagram of concentric circles. The inner circle of large area represents local community interests; the area between the inner and second circumference, the interests of the state group; and the third and outer area, the interests of the national group. The study of any civic problem may be represented by the area of a sector, which may be conceived to originate at the center of the circles and proceed outward through the various ranges of concentric interest. The boundary lines of the circles are of minimum importance and the boundaries of the sector of maximum importance.

The sources for the topics included in this syllabus are as follows: (a) the references and syllabi named in the bibliography to this paper; (b) the recent yearly programs for the public meetings of the Woman's Civic Club, the Men's Civic League, Chamber of Progress, and the Commercial Club, all civic organizations of Mishawaka; (c) questionnaires filled out by citizens representing all viewpoints of the community, viz.: city officials, lawyers, doctors, ministers, school men, merchants, employers of labor, laborers, and tradesmen. This questionnaire reads as follows:

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN: The civic class of the high school is making a study of community civics, that is, the

civic problems of Mishawaka. State and national government is studied only as related to our own city problems and local interests. This has been recommended by civic leagues, civic and commercial clubs, and educators as being most helpful to the oncoming citizen and most valuable to the future city. The chief difficulty of a course of this sort is to find out just what are the civic problems of the city.

It would be obviously unfair to accept the views of any one particular person, and hence we are asking the opinions of men and women representing as wide a selection of views as possible. The answers to these questions will be tabulated by the civics teacher, and no one else will have access to the questionnaires.

We ask you to set down five or more civic problems which are related to Mishawaka in its past, present, or future progress, which are suitable and important enough to be studied in the civics class.

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Each student in the civics class was required to deliver and collect five of these questionnaires. The problems suggested for study were then tabulated and set in the order of their importance as determined by their frequency. This syllabus is not recommended because it has reached a state of perfection. It is merely tentative, and subject to continuous reorganization.

The syllabus is extensive, so that it includes a great number of items under each main topic, and thus it is left open to the teacher to place the emphasis where it is most needed. The three main objections raised against this course by teachers of the subject are: (a) that it presents too much material to be covered in one semester; (b) the sources of material for a course of this sort are too remote and difficult of control; and (c) that it is impossible to organize the course so that students will receive a training comparable with that derived from the traditional text-book course in civics. These objections resolve themselves into the following answers. The question of time is a matter of emphasis, and emphasis in any course is a problem of administration. The material for a course of this sort is legion. It exists everywhere. The rather brief bibliography appended will be suggestive of the immense amount of available material in this field. The real problem the teacher will have to master is the organization of the readings for class use. The sources must first be digested, then the readings assigned to the various topics of the syllabus according to the emphasis desired. As to the value of the training of the traditional text-book course, at present this rather intangible product is very much under suspicion because of the content of the text-books, and the rather formal method usually in vogue in teaching it.

A. SYLLABUS ON COMMUNITY PROBLEMS.

I. CITY GROWTH.

1. History of the growth of Mishawaka in relation to: (a) population, (b) public improvements, (c) industries, (d) institutions, (e) government, (f) civic problems.
2. City growth in general, showing: (a) statistics of rural and urban population, (b) change in social, economic, and industrial conditions incident to city growth.

3. Civic problems resulting from city growth, such as: (a) health and sanitation, (b) housing, (c) public utilities, (d) city insurance against fire, crime, etc., (e) sewerage, (f) paving, (g) recreation, and (h) other co-operative enterprises.

II. HEALTH AND PUBLIC SANITATION.

1. Health and physical efficiency is an economic and civic asset, and the city must protect the people from (a) loss of life by preventable diseases, (b) economic loss through sickness from preventable causes, (c) relation of good health to physical efficiency and character.
2. Measures to secure public health, such as: (a) the ventilation of homes, public buildings, workrooms, and public conveyances, (b) smoke and noise nuisance, (c) plumbing, unsanitary out-buildings, sewage, (d) pure water, the wells, and an adequate supply of water for all purposes, stream protection, (e) pure food laws, inspection of food, markets, dairies, slaughter-houses, public eating-places, and ice-cream factories, (f) recreation facilities, gymnasium, playgrounds, athletic fields, (g) control of contagion, quarantine obedience, medical inspection in the schools, school nurses, vaccination, and prevention, (h) city cleanliness by means of public baths, garbage disposal, street cleaning, and care of waste paper, (i) proper lighting, heating, and inspection, (j) child labor, (k) "swat the fly" campaign, (l) vital statistics, (m) service of hospitals, and dispensaries.

III. RECREATION.

1. Recreation versus commercialized amusements is a problem of the city because of the (a) limited play space in open air, (b) monotonous factory or office work, (c) necessity to combat dangerous commercialized amusements, (d) need for physical efficiency, i. e., "recreation is re-creation."
2. Recreation may be of two kinds: (a) physical recreation demanded by certain classes of workers, such as recesses, playgrounds, athletics, gymnasiums, public baths, and swimming-pools, Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Y. M. and Y. W. C. A., municipal dance-halls, gardens, (b) intellectual recreations are needed by many types of workers, viz., libraries, reading-rooms, concerts, lectures, studies, (c) recreation as mere relaxation or amusement, theaters, "movies," shows, dancing, etc.

IV. CIVIC BEAUTY.

1. Importance of the city beautiful as man's home; effect on the visitor, impression on the citizen, and economic effect on sale of property.
2. Items affecting civic beauty are (a) architecture of residences and business section, (b) lawn contests, (c) work of city forester, (d) streets cleaned, (e) vacant lots gardened, (f) clean-up day, (g) river front, (h) parks and drives, (i) smoke abatement, (j) elimination of bill-boards, (k) suppression of noise, (l) proper care of public buildings and lawns, (m) effect of the gateways to the city, depots, Lincoln Highway, etc.

V. CITY-PLANNING.

1. The human, economic, industrial, and efficiency values of city-planning, as applied to the plan of Mishawaka.
2. Study of well-planned cities like Washington, Paris, Vienna, and Philadelphia, showing grouping and

arrangement of points of civic interest, approaches, ease of access and traffic.

3. Examples of poorly planned cities.
4. Application of the above facts to the civic plan of Mishawaka.

VI. PUBLIC UTILITIES.

1. Gas, electricity, street cars, telephone, railroads, express, banks.
2. Franchises—granting and taxing of, regulation, quality of service rendered, reasonableness of rates.

VII. GOVERNMENT AND CITY OWNED PUBLIC SERVICE ENTERPRISES.

1. Streets, Lincoln Highway, bridges, library, city hall, water supply, mail service, postal savings bank, parcels post—all operated in Mishawaka under government ownership.
2. Cost, quality of service rendered, and general principle of government ownership vs. privately owned public utilities.

VIII. CITY INSURANCE FOR THE PROTECTION OF LIFE AND PROPERTY.

1. Police system, fire department, accident prevention, "safety first" campaigns.
2. Assistance rendered by county, State, and nation through officers, militia, army and navy, life-saving stations, lighthouses, etc.

IX. PUBLIC CHARITY AND CORRECTION.

1. Crime and reform, prison reform, juvenile courts, industrial schools, and penal farms.
2. Poverty and care of poor.
3. Care of defectives.
4. Unemployment problems, and agencies for their solution.
5. Workmen's compensation laws.
6. Age and service pensions.
7. Hospitals and outdoor relief (of all kinds).
8. Regulation of the liquor traffic, patent medicines, and sale of opiates.

X. INDUSTRIES IN MISHAWAKA.

1. A classification of occupations and workers into the following groups: (a) unskilled or common laborers, (b) tradesmen or skilled workers, (c) clerical pursuits, (d) merchandizing and salesmanship, (e) managerial pursuits, (f) professional classes.
2. Cataloguing of the industries, raw materials, products, classes of workers, factory systems, etc.
3. Study and survey of wages, hours, working conditions, industrial hygiene, opportunities for advancement, risks, and dangers, etc.
4. Other problems of labor and welfare of the worker in Mishawaka: (a) workmen's benefits, (b) clubs, (c) rest-rooms, (d) high cost of living, (e) standard of living, (f) recreation, (g) opportunities for enjoying life.

XI. PROGRAMS OF THE PRIVATE, SEMI-PUBLIC, AND CIVIC ORGANIZATIONS OF THE CITY.

1. The Associated Charities.
2. The Woman's Club.
3. The Men's Civic League.
4. The Mishawaka Chamber of Progress.
5. The Commercial Club.
6. Social program of the lodges, churches, social centers, and other organizations of the city.

XII. CITY GOVERNMENT.

1. The Indiana plan for city government.

2. Reforms proposed for city government—commission form, non-partisan election, city-manager system, budget, etc.

XIII. COUNTY GOVERNMENT.

1. The Indiana plan for county government.
2. Reforms proposed for government of the county; (a) short ballot, (b) annual budget, (c) economy in purchase of county supplies, (d) non-partisan elections, (e) civil service, (f) reform of county jails, (h) business manager system, (i) commission form of county government, (j) abolishment of the fee system, (k) State control of county asylums, (l) taxation reform.

XIV. STATE GOVERNMENT.

1. Plan of the government of the State of Indiana; executive, legislative, and judicial.
2. Reforms in state government: need of a constitutional convention, to include up-to-date measures, such as initiative and referendum, reforms in county government, tax laws, election laws, and the form of city government, liquor traffic, recall, woman suffrage.

XV. NATIONAL GOVERNMENT.

1. The plan of national government; executive, legislative, and judicial.
2. Reforms under way; national issues; international relations.

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"Yale University Lectures on Citizenship." Yale University Press. (\$1.15 each):

A. T. Hadley. "Relations between Freedom and Responsibility in Democratic Government."

Charles Hughes. "Conditions of Progress in Democratic Government."

Elihu Root. "The Citizen's Part in Government."

William H. Taft. "Four Aspects of Civic Duty."

Zueblin, Charles. "American Municipal Progress." Macmillan, New York. (\$1.25.)

Zueblin, Charles. "Decade of Civic Development." Macmillan, New York.

IV. MAGAZINES, PERIODICALS, NEWSPAPERS.

"American City Magazine." Civic Press, New York. (\$2.00.)

"Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science." Philadelphia.

"County Government," May, 1913. (\$1.00.)

"Housing and Town Planning."

City papers.

Metropolitan daily.

"Nation." New York. (\$3.00.)

"National Municipal Review." National Municipal League, Philadelphia. (\$5.00.)

"Playground." Playground and Recreation Assn., New York. (\$2.00.)

"Political Science Quarterly." Ginn Co., New York. (\$3.00.)

"Public Service." Maurice E. Eldridge. (25 cents.)

"Survey." Survey Associates, New York. (\$1.75.)

V. FOR THE TEACHER.

Barnard, J. Lynn. "Teaching of Civics." In "N. E. A. Report," 1913, pp. 84-90.

U. S. Bureau of Education, "Report of the Committee on Social Studies Reorganization of Secondary Education." (Bulletin 41), 1915.

U. S. Bureau of Education, "Abstract of N. E. A. Committee on Social Studies." (Civic Education Series No. 4.)

"An Outline for the Study of Current Political, Economic, and Social Problems." (Indiana University Bulletin, Vol. XII, No. 7.)

Chicago Course. Syllabus, including Topics on Industrial, Civic, and Sanitary Conditions of the City.

U. S. Bureau of Education, "Proposed List of Topics for Community Civics." (Civic Education Series No. 4.)

Kerschensteiner, George. "Education for Citizenship." Rand, McNally, Chicago. (75 cents.)

New England History Teachers' Association. "Outline for the Study of American Civil Government." Macmillan. (50 cents.)

"Syllabus for the Teachers of Civics in the Schools of Cincinnati."

"Syllabus of Civics for the Secondary Schools of New York."

Having disposed of the syllabus of topics for a course in community civics, I wish to call your attention to the definite, practical, co-operative civic activities undertaken for the purpose of forming habits of civic practice. First, let me call your attention to a number of mock affairs. Mock affairs do some good in that they give the form of participation at least, and in that respect are better than nothing. The nearer the mock situation approaches the actual practical standards of the outside world the higher the value of the results.

The class organized itself into a city council, legislature, woman's club, men's civics league, and chamber of progress, and transacted the customary business of those assemblies according to the usual rules of order in force at their meetings. This is a valuable sort of activity for a civics class, when planned and worked out carefully in advance, with a definite assignment of bills or ordinances for discussion at the meeting. The practical activities, however, have given by far the better response. The following practical civic activities have been decided upon as being most helpful: (1) Attendance at the public discussions of the women's civic club, the chamber of progress, and the men's civic league. (2) Attendance and report of the meetings of the city council where business interesting to the class is considered. (3) The study of the details of a case in court and a visit to the trial court. (4) A "swat-the-fly" campaign in which the class will co-operate with the civic organizations of the city, and besides present a film and lecture on "swatting the fly." (5) Attendance, report, and discussion of public lectures of a civic nature.

(6) Organization of the civics class into the high school civics club as an auxiliary of the city civic clubs, with definite co-operative opportunities. (7) Distributing of charity at various times, and collecting a list of needy families. (8) Care and encouragement of birds in the city. (9) Spring clean-up. (10) Gardening of vacant lots. (11) Securing speakers on civic subjects for the auditorium assemblies of the high school. (12) Excursions to factories, the library, postoffice, city hall, gas plant, water works, electric plant, county courthouse, and the offices there, and trips of inspection of streets, lots, bridges, etc.

The civics class draws upon the public as much as possible. Most of the city officers are called upon to give talks to the class explaining their work; the lawyers, representatives, newspaper men, and members and officers of the city civic organizations are drafted into service. The attitude toward this kind of work in Mishawaka is exceptionally enthusiastic. Almost all, without exception, seem very glad to give their time and services, and generally seem quite pleased to explain their work.

Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Editor George M. Harvey's "England To-day" in the January "North American Review" says that "one of the prime issues of the war is that between citizens and subjects, between State and Crown. On the one side, States composed of citizens; on the other, Crowns commanding their subjects."

Prof. A. F. Pollard, of the University of London, discusses "War and the British Realms" in the January number of the "Yale Review," paying especial attention to the relation of the colonies to the causes of the war and their probable relation to its settlement.

"The Real Cause of the War" in the last number of "The Unpopular Review" calls the struggle a professors' war, and blames all professors, especially those of America who sang praises to the German genius.

Eric Fisher Wood's "The Nation on Trial" in the January "Century" is an argument for preparedness based on our history since 1860.

"Germany Invincible and Secure," by Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg, in the January number of "Current History," is a report of the address given in the Reichstag, December 9, in answer to the Socialist interpellation on peace.

J. A. R. Marriott's article on "The Problem of the Adriatic" in the December number of "The Nineteenth Century" deals with "the position and claims of Italy . . . of the Southern Slavs . . . and of the central Empires of Germany and Austria," and the efforts of these to secure a balance of power.

"Journeying to Babylon" is the title of a chatty account written by William Warfield (January "Harper's"), full of interesting glimpses of Babylonian ruins.

Dr. E. J. Dillon's "Greece and the Allies" in the "Contemporary Review" for December is an attempt to explain the attitude of King Constantine as sympathetic to the Allies.

Carlo de Fonaro's study, "General Salvador Alvarado" in the January "Forum," is a careful study of reconstruction, social and political, in Yucatan.

"Polish Memories," by the Right Hon. W. F. Bailey, C.B. ("Fortnightly" for December), is a most interesting account of the German advance in Poland.

"The Date of the Arch of Titus," by Donald McFayden, of the University of Chicago, in the last number of "The Classical Journal," throws much light on the reign of Domitian.

Michael MacDonough has written a brief account of "Parliament in Wartime," which appears in the December "Chambers." According to the author "never since the Witenagemot has Parliament been so entirely composed of old men," and "more remarkable still are the signs one sees . . . of the truce declared between the two parties at the beginning of the war. . . Political forces that for centuries have been antagonistic in their nature and composition have coalesced as if by miracle in defiance of all the fixed principles of political strife."

Britton B. Cooke's "Faith Without Works" in the January number of "The Canadian Magazine" is an appeal to Canadians to support England's war policy, and incidentally it contains a good apposition of that policy.

The paper read by H. A. Millis at the August, 1915, meeting of the American Economic Association, held in Berkeley, Cal., on "Some Economic Aspects of Japanese Immigration," is printed in the "American Economic Review" for December, 1915. According to Professor Millis, the struggle over the incoming of Japanese laborers developed chiefly out of the conflicts of standards involved.

"The Balkans and Diplomacy," by J. W. Headlam, staff inspector of Secondary Schools for the Board of Education in England, which appears in "The Great War" section of the January "Atlantic," is an argument against considering the recent events in the Balkans as an extension of the great European war.

David Hannay has a good account of the progress of submarine warfare up to date in the December "Blackwood's," under the title of "The Achievement of the Submarine."

Most interesting is M. Imbart de la Tour's letter to M. Henri Bergson on "Pangermanisme et la Philosophie de l'Histoire" in the "Revue des Deux Mondes" for December.

"Our Administration of the Philippine Islands" is the subject of a straightforward attack on the situation in the Orient by Prof. Thomas Lindsay Blayney, of Rice Institute. Professor Blayney was appointed last year Albert Kahn Fellow, and spent the period of his study in Manila, where he studied the situation at first hand.

M. Charles Stiénon begins a series of articles on the Colonial campaign of the Allies, 1914-15, in the "Revue des Deux Mondes" for November, 1915, with an article entitled, "Le Toyo." He gives the military details of the campaign with great clearness, as well as the partition of the conquered territory among the Allies.

Reports from The Historical Field

The December number of the "Mississippi Valley Historical Review" contains an interesting study by Prof. St. G. L. Sioussat upon the part played by Tennessee in the Compromise of 1850 and in the work of the Nashville Convention of the same year. Mr. Wm. C. Dunn studies "The Spanish Reaction Against the French Advance Toward New Mexico, 1717-1727." His material is gathered almost exclusively from manuscript sources in the archives of Spain and Mexico. Mr. L. H. Gipson, of Wabash College, contributed an article upon "The Statesmanship of President Johnson: a Study of the Presidential Reconstruction Policy." A valuable summary of historical activities in the Trans-Mississippi Northwest covering the period from July 1, 1914, to October 1, 1915, is furnished by Mr. Dan E. Clark, of the State Historical Society of Iowa. The original documents in this number consist of a few papers from the letter files of the Dearborn Family.

Prof. Jonas Viles, of the University of Missouri, has prepared "An Outline of American History for Use in High Schools" based upon Muzzey's text-book of American history, published by Ginn & Co. The outline contains no references other than those to Muzzey's text-book.

The proceedings of the joint meeting of the American Historical Association with the California History Teachers' Association, held at Berkeley, Cal., July 22, 1915, have been published by the Committee on Program. The meeting was one of the sessions of the Panama-Pacific Historical Congress, and was presided over by Prof. Max Farrand, of Yale University. The question under consideration was "Is It in the Interest of History in Schools That a Fuller Definition of the History Requirements be Made by the American Historical Association Showing the Especial Points to be Emphasized and Those to be More Lightly Treated?"

The History Section of the New York State Teachers' Association met at Rochester on Tuesday, November 23, 1915, with Mr. Ernest Robinson, of Glens Falls, presiding. Mr. Avery W. Skinner, of the State Department of Education, urged the use of maps, charts, pictures, etc., in order to make the past real. The use of such material was criticised somewhat adversely by some of the other speakers. Mr. M. B. Garrett, of St. Lawrence University, spoke on "Practical Methods of Testing Collateral Reading;" Dr. Edward E. Slosson, literary editor of "The Independent," presented "The Value of Current Periodicals in Teaching History." Other speakers in the course of the session were Prof. Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, New York City; Mr. Milton Fletcher, of Jamestown; Mr. Sherman Williams, of the State Division of Home Libraries. Prof. Andrew C. McLaughlin, of the University of Chicago, delivered an address on "Teaching Peace and War in American History," the discussion of which was led by Prof. A. S. Risley, of the State Normal College, Albany.

During the session of the Florida State Teachers' Association, held in Tallahassee, December 28 to 30, there was organized a History Teachers' Association of Florida, of which the following are officers: Miss Caroline Brevard, of Woman's College, Tallahassee, president; Prof. Kemper, of De Funiak Springs, vice-president; and Miss E. M. Williams, of Jacksonville, secretary.

Prof. Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, has been elected chairman of the History Section of the New York State Teachers' Association.

"Neutral America" is a severe arraignment of the policy of the United States toward the present European war. It is written by Henry B. Joy, of Detroit, Mich.

The History and Civics Section of the Pennsylvania State Educational Association met in the Central High School in Scranton on Tuesday, December 28. The subject for discussion was "The Teaching of Civics," and the following program was arranged: "What Feature of Our Government Can Be Taught Most Successfully in Connection with History?" J. M. Fisher, High School, Ambler; "Civics—When, Why, How?" Eugene C. Fellows, Technical High School, Scranton; "Practical Civics, a Training for Citizenship," J. N. K. Hickman, Boys' High School, Reading; "How Can Community Life and Social Problems Be Made the Basis of a Course in Civics?" Dayton Ellis, High School, Dunmore. The chairman is Mr. W. D. Renninger, of the Central High School, Philadelphia.

The Institute of Public Service of New York City has been organized under the direction of Dr. William H. Allen. The purpose of the institute is to circulate facts, questions and suggestions of nation-wide importance to public service in reference to governments, civic agencies, higher education and benevolent foundations. The office of the institute is 51 Chambers Street, New York City.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The thirtieth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, held in Washington, December 27th to 31st, proved one of the most interesting as well as one of the most largely attended sessions in recent years. The attendance was exceeded only by the meetings held in New York and Boston. The program, formal and informal discussions, and the social events of the meeting were influenced largely, first, by the present European war; and secondly, by the presence in Washington, during the meetings, of delegates to the second Pan-American Scientific Congress. From President H. Morse Stephens' presidential address on "Nationalism" to the sectional meetings on ancient history, European history and English history, there were continual references to nationalism, international rivalries, and the causes of the present war.

Members who are interested in the care and collection of archives had opportunity to discuss their work in two conferences; one upon the desirability of the erection of a National Archive Building in Washington, and the other at the Conference of Historical Societies, at which was discussed the topic, "The Papers of Business Houses in Historical Work."

Joint sessions were held with several other bodies meeting in Washington at the same time. Among these sessions was the one mentioned on a National Archive Building, in which a number of other societies participated; a joint meeting with the American Economic Association, at which the presidential addresses of the two societies were read; a joint session with the International Commerce of Americanists, dealing with the Indian and kindred civilization in America; a joint session with the Section VI of the Pan-American Scientific Congress; a session with the American Political Science Association upon the "Growth of Nationalism in the British Empire," and a joint session with the Naval History Society.

A conference of history teachers to which members and officers of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland and of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association had been invited, was held on Friday afternoon, December 31. The topic, "Whether More Precise Definition is Advisable Either for College Entrance Requirements or for General School Courses," was ably discussed by six speakers, all of whom favored some definition of the field. As a result the conference passed resolutions requesting the Committee on the Teaching of History of the American Historical Association to carry out the project for stating a series of topics for each of the secondary school courses in history. The papers read at this meeting will be printed in the MAGAZINE in the near future.

During the same week a sub-committee of the National Education Association upon Social Studies in the High Schools was meeting in Washington, and opportunity was had for a comparison of ideals and methods of this committee with those of the committee of the American Historical Association.

The social events of the week were not so many as to interfere with the real program of the meeting. There was the usual number of gatherings of persons connected with the several universities. These gatherings constitute a valuable part of the annual meetings, and partake somewhat of the character of alumni societies.

Owing to the many attacks which had been made in the public presses and in pamphlets upon the type of organization and methods of management of the Association and of its organ, "The American Historical Review," great interest centered in the annual business meeting which was held on Wednesday, December 29, from 2 to 6.30 p. m. The reports of the officers and chairmen of committees showed that the work of the Association was being carried on with its usual interest and enthusiasm. The committee on the Herbert Baxter Adams prize reported that they had awarded the prize to Mr. S. C. Pease for his study upon "The Leveller Movement," with honorable mention of Dr. Melvin's study of Napoleon's "System of Licensed Navigation." Prof. Edward P. Cheyney, chairman of the Board of Editors of the "American Historical Review," reported upon the controverted points which have been brought up within the last year respecting the "Review." His report created a favorable impression which was evidenced by the unanimous passage of a vote of confidence in the Board of Editors, and of thanks for their work.

The report of the Committee of Nine was presented. Its recommendations for a change of the constitution and by-laws were laid over for consideration at the next annual meeting in accordance with the amendment provision in the constitution. Its resolutions upon the relationship between the Association and the "American Historical Review" were, with some modifications, carried. A Finance Committee, one of the changes in procedure demanded by some members, was elected by the meeting upon nominations made from the floor. The annual election of officers resulted in the choice of the following: President, Prof. George L. Burr; first vice-president, Mr. Worthington C. Ford; second vice-president, Mr. William Roscoe Thayer; secretary, Dr. Waldo G. Leland; treasurer, Dr. C. W. Bowen; curator, Mr. A. H. Clark; secretary of the council, Prof. E. B. Greene; elective members of the council, Prof. E. C. Barker, Prof. G. S. Ford, Prof. C. H. Haskins, Prof. U. B. Phillips, Prof. Lucy M. Salmon, Prof. Samuel B. Harding. The special committee on finance was composed of Dr. Cheesman A. Herrick, Prof. A. C. Howland and Dr. Howard L. Gray.

In view of the fact that the proposed changes in the constitution were not yet adopted, the nominating committee of 1915 was continued for the ensuing year, without change of personnel, except that the chairman, Dr. McIlwain, refused to serve again, and Prof. F. M. Anderson was chosen in his place. The council of the Association announced the following appointments to committees and commissions for the ensuing year (the names of new appointees are printed in bold face):

Historical Manuscripts Commission.—Gaillard Hunt, C. H. Ambler, H. E. Bolton, **M. M. Quaife**, W. O. Scroggs, Justin H. Smith

Committee on the Justin Winsor Prize.—C. R. Fish, G. L. Beer, Everett Kimball, Allen Johnson, **O. G. Libby**.

Committee on the Herbert Baxter Adams Prize.—L. M. Larson, S. B. Fay, **L. J. Paetow**, **Ruth Putnam**, W. R. Shepherd.

Public Archives Commission.—V. H. Paltsits, C. W. Alvord, S. J. Buck, **J. C. Fitzpatrick**, G. S. Goddard, **C. C. Moore**, T. M. Owen.

Committee on Bibliography.—**G. M. Dutcher**, **W. T. Laprade**, **A. H. Lybyer**, **A. H. Shearer**, W. A. Slade, B. C. Steiner, **Wallace Notestein**, W. W. Rockwell.

Publications (ex-officio with exception of the chairman).—**H. B. Learned**, C. R. Fish, **G. M. Dutcher**, Gaillard Hunt, J. F. Jameson, L. M. Larson, V. H. Paltsits, and the secretaries of the Council and of the Association.

General Committee.—W. E. Lingelbach, Arthur I. Andrews, W. K. Boyd, J. M. Callahan, C. E. Carter, I. J. Cox, **Eloise Ellery**, R. M. McElroy, E. S. Noyes, **P. F. Peck**, M. P. Robinson, **R. B. Way**, the secretaries of the Association and the Pacific Coast Branch.

Committee on History in Schools.—W. S. Ferguson, Victoria Adams, H. E. Bourne, H. L. Cannon, Edgar Dawson, O. M. Dickerson, H. D. Foster, S. B. Harding, Margaret McGill, R. A. Maurer, **N. W. Stephenson**.

Conference of Historical Societies.—Chairman to be selected by the Program Committee; A. H. Shearer, secretary.

Advisory Board of the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE.—Henry Johnson, F. M. Fling, James Sullivan, Anna B. Thompson (these four hold over); **Frederic Duncalf**, **O. H. Williams** (these two elected for three years from January 1, 1916).

Committee on Program, Thirty-second Annual Meeting, Cincinnati, 1916.—H. E. Bourne, F. M. Anderson, Merrick Whitcomb, J. A. Woodburn, W. H. Siebert, E. R. Turner.

Committee on Local Arrangements.—Charles P. Taft, chairman; Charles T. Greve, vice-chairman; Judson Harmon, Charles W. Dabney, P. V. N. Myers, W. P. Rogers, T. C. Powell, J. L. Shearer, H. C. Hollister, H. B. Mackoy, I. J. Cox, secretary, with power to add to their membership.

Committee on Bibliography of Modern English History.—E. P. Cheyney, A. L. Cross, R. B. Merriman, Conyers Read, W. C. Abbott.

It was voted that the Committee on the Military History Prize be continued as at present until the prize is awarded.

Mr. Ephraim Emerton was elected a member of the Board of Editors of the "American Historical Review" for two years from January 1, 1916, to fill the unexpired term of Mr. George L. Burr, resigned.

Mr. Claude H. Van Tyne was elected a member of the Board of Editors of the "Review" to serve six years from January 1, 1916.

AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION.

The twelfth annual meeting of the American Political Science Association was held in Washington, December 27 to 31, 1915. The program provided for several joint sessions with other bodies which were meeting in Washington at the same time. The topics for the several sessions were as follows: Preservation of the National Archives, Standardization, Governmental Efficiency, Administrative Tribunals, International Disputes and Justiciable Action, Improvement of the Technique of Direct Legislation, Political Scientists and Practical Governmental Work, The Amending Procedure of the Federal Constitution, the Growth of Nationalism in the British Empire, and Statute Drafting.

The Committee on Instruction gave an outline of their projected report which is as follows

General Plan of the Report which is being prepared in the form of a volume with a view toward its publication by The Macmillan Company

PART I.

- I. Stages in the advancement of civic instruction.
- II. Efforts to improve the teaching of civics by such organizations as:
 - (a) National Education Association.
 - (b) American Historical Association.
 - (c) National Municipal League.
 - (d) American Political Science Association.
- III. The purpose of courses of instruction in civic affairs.
- IV. Methods, materials, and devices.

PART II.

- I. Courses of study.
 - (a) For elementary schools.
 - (b) For junior high schools.
 - (c) For advanced civics in senior high school.
 - (d) Bibliographies for teachers.
- II. Preparation of teachers—normal schools, colleges, and universities.

PART III.

- I. Report of Secondary School instruction by Committee of Seven and Bureau of Education.
- II. Reports of state committees on the teaching of Civics in separate States.
- III. Report on the teaching of political science in colleges and universities.
- IV. Appendix with suggestive programs and successful methods for the teaching of Civics in the public schools.

A. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR COLLEGE INSTRUCTION.

- I. Establishment of a separate department of Political Science.
- II. Elementary course combining American Government and select foreign governments for the purpose of offering a comparative study.
- III. Special provisions for training of teachers of Civics as well as for school administrators.
- IV. More stress to be given to administrative methods and the enforcement of the law.
- V. Preparation of Reports and Surveys on actual political conditions.
- VI. Establishment of Reference Libraries and Research Laboratories for study, and for the purpose of rendering aid to government officials and interested citizens.
- VII. Provisions for specific training for certain branches of the public service.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INSTRUCTION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

- I. The urgent necessity of more time.—The present allotment of time is insufficient, and as a rule those only are satisfied who now give a full year of four or five hours per week to social science.
- II. Better preparation of teachers.—Courses in normal schools, colleges and universities designed to prepare teachers of civics. The utter indifference and lack of provision along this line is severely condemned by teachers themselves, by principals and city superintendents.
- III. More emphasis on local affairs.—Opinion so far as it is virtually unanimous in favor of more emphasis to city and county government and community affairs in general.
- IV. Instruction to be made more practical.—Such devices are particularly recommended as observation of local government departments, surveys of local conditions, talks to class by officials and others interested in governmental problems, study of government reports and special consideration of the efficiency or inefficiency of present governmental agencies.
- V. Better Material.—Collection of a Civics Library with reference works, government reports and pamphlet literature illustrating all phases of government work. A select list of magazines for use with Civics classes. More co-operation in preparation of material by State universities, state and national departments of education. Publication by the government of pamphlets of suggestions and illustrative material as to government functions.
- VI. Bring pressure to bear on colleges to accept a full year of social science for entrance when the work is effectively taught.—High schools are much less likely to do justice to this branch of study as long as colleges accept either no work in Civics or give credit for only a half unit.
- VII. Put civic instruction into civic practice, by such devices as self-government in school, by organizing class on model of government departments, by formation of civic leagues and community clubs.

The courses of study which have been prepared by the committee are intended to offer suggestive material and methods of presentation for instruction in civics, beginning in the first grade and continuing until the last year high school. The plan of outline as submitted contains material and data for incidental instruction in the grades from one to six, a full year course for the eighth grade or the first year in junior high school, and a full year course for the senior high school.

Submitted on behalf of the committee by

CHARLES G. HAINES, Chairman.

At the same session of the Political Science Association, Prof. Edgar Dawson, of Hunter College, New York City, presented an outline of "An Elementary College Course in Comparative Government," covering one year of work at the rate of three hours class work a week. Prof. Dawson's outline is as follows:

1. A definition of government, one week.
2. A definition of law, one week.
3. Constitutions, two weeks.
4. The legislative process, two weeks.
5. The process of adjudication, two weeks.
6. The administration of government, four weeks.
7. Local government, one week.

8. Municipal government, three weeks.
9. Taxation and the budget, two weeks.
10. Political parties, two weeks.
11. Federal constitutions, one week.
12. Federal legislation, one week.
13. Federal adjudication, one week.
14. Federal administration, two weeks.
15. The government of dependencies, two weeks.
16. International relations, two weeks.
17. A definition of government, one week.

It is assumed that the student gives to this subject thirty weeks, three hours a week. In such a course a student should read at least 2,000 pages during the year. There is no single book that is entirely satisfactory as a basic text for such a course; but a list of references aggregating about 2,000 pages could be made from such books as the following: Beard's "American Government" and his "Readings;" Bryce's "American Commonwealth;" Reinsch's "Readings in American State and Federal Government;" Wilson's "State;" Lowell's "Governments of Continental Europe and of England;" Ogg's "Governments of Europe;" Burgess's "Political Science and Constitutional Law;" Garner or Gettell's "Introduction to Political Science;" Hershey's "International Law;" Ostrogorski's "Political Parties;" Reinsch's "Colonial Government," or other similar books.

Such a course cannot be satisfactorily conducted on the lecture plan. The object is not to teach the student facts, but to develop his political instinct in the right direction and to organize his political philosophy through discussion.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

RYAN, OSWALD. *Municipal Freedom: A Study of the Commission Government, with an Introduction by A. Lawrence Lowell.* New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1915. Pp. xvi, 233. 60 cents.

Mr. Ryan, then just reaching his majority, won in 1910 the Baldwin Prize offered by the National Municipal League with an essay on the "Commission Plan of City Government." Since then he has taught at Harvard, practiced law in Indiana, contributed to "City Government by Commission," and other periodicals, conducted a campaign as candidate for Mayor, and been elected State's Attorney in Indiana. His knowledge of the problems of government is therefore both scientific and practical, and his discussion of the subject is popular as well as scholarly. There is no more readable or acceptable account in print of the present status of municipal government in America than the book before us.

This account of government by commission is very brief, the text proper being limited to 158 pages; but it is doubtless as much as the average reader of a popular book on government needs to give him an adequate idea of this great reform movement. The chapter headings with some suggestion of the content of each may be given as follows: "The New Departure in Municipal Democracy," a general account of the commission plan; "A Tale of Two Cities," an account of the experience under the reform wave of Haverhill, Mass., and Salt Lake City, Utah; "Democracy and Efficiency," an argument for reorganization in the interest of efficiency; "Fixing Responsibility," explains itself as an argument that the only safety is in placing responsibility so clearly upon the shoulders of some one that he

can not shift it; "Changing Municipal Organization to Preserve Municipal Democracy," to refute the notion that the commission form is un-American, or unrepresentative; the "Coming of the Burgomaster," showing that the City Manager is but the German Burgomaster under another name and smells just as sweet; "Is the Party System Passing from the City?" is answered with an approving affirmative; "Vitalizing the Ballot," preferential voting and other means of permitting the citizen to make a real choice in spite of the activities of the "highly organized minority;" "Municipal Freedom," an argument in favor of real home rule for American cities as the only hope of arriving at real municipal efficiency under any plan of city government.

"Ours are the only English-speaking cities in the world that are denied the right of self-government. One cannot imagine, for example, legislative intermeddling in the affairs of an English city, which is permitted by parliament to develop in its own way and according to its own ideas of administrative organization. English cities since 1832 have been among the best governed in the world, and American cities have been among the worst governed. And one reason for this is that English cities are self-governed and American cities are State-governed. It has been well said that the citizens of Birmingham [England] govern Birmingham, but that the legislature of Indiana governs Indianapolis." (Page 151.)

The appendix contains the text of the Iowa Commission Government Act, providing the "Des Moines Plan" of commission government; the "Commission-Manager Plan as Outlined in Selected Sections of the Dayton Charter;" and "Preferential Voting as Provided in the Charter of Grand Junction, Colorado." Added to this is a list of about 150 references on municipal government. Possibly the lack of an index will not be regarded as a considerable defect in a book of this character. If this is a fair sample of The American Books, the name of the series, Messrs. Doubleday, Page & Company are to be congratulated, and we may look forward to the other volumes of the series with impatience.

EDGAR DAWSON.

Hunter College of the City of New York.

I ACCUSE. By a German. Translated by Alexander Gray. New York: George H. Doran Co., 1915. Pp. 445. \$1.50, net.

This book purports to have been written by a German who believes that the mass of his countrymen have been misled by their rulers, and that Germany and Austria-Hungary are almost wholly responsible for bringing about the great war in 1914. The author starts with a brief survey of the situation in February, 1915, and concludes that in spite of victories in the field Germany cannot win in the end. Then follows a long chapter on the "Historical Antecedents of the Crime." In this he argues that Germany was pushed into the war by the expansionists to gain such advantages as more territory and foreign colonies which are really not advantages at all. He believes that the best markets of Germany from which her merchants have been getting rich were in Europe and America, and he fears the chances of Germany have been greatly injured in those countries. He shows that the German government has for some years past been the chief obstacle to peace agreements in Europe, and that no other government except those of Austria and Germany wanted war. In chapter three he discusses "The Crime," taking up the part of each of the five great powers in bringing about the war. In this he uses mainly the official documents published by the various governments. These he analyzes very cleverly and clearly to prove his conclusion that Germany and Aus-

tria intentionally brought about the war in 1914 because they believed the moral advantages (by reason of the murder of the Austrian Archduke) and the military advantages were theirs. In his argument the author uses the Austrian Red Book and German White Book, as well as other official German statements very effectively to prove the insincerity of the German government. He does not hesitate to say that some of its statements are lies. His criticisms of the German policy toward Belgium are especially keen. After discussing the evidence about each government's responsibility he summarizes his arguments very well. Then follow two shorter chapters on "The Consequences of the Deed" and "The Future." The tone of the author is one of anger at the leaders of Germany and Austria-Hungary, who he believes have drawn all Europe into the awful war, and sorrow for the German people who have "been corrupted and blinded that it might be driven into a war which it has never foreseen, never intended, and never desired. In order that it might be liberated, it has been put in chains." The author declares he has written his book in order to break this charm. Whatever his nationality, he has written a very strong book full of keen argument. Students of recent European history will find it worth reading whether they agree with all its conclusions or not.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

HOLLAND, RUPERT S. *Historic Heroes of Chivalry*. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co., 1914. Pp. 304. \$1.50.

Roland and Oliver, the Cid, St. Louis, William Tell, du Guesclin, del Pulgar and la Vega, Giovanni of the Black Band, Gustavus Vasa, Francis Drake, Montrose, Louis Grandpré, and Gordon of Khartoum are the heroes of this volume of "The Historic Series for Young People," and legend rather than history is the principal basis of it. Sixteen illustrations are supplied.

THOMPSON, C. MILDRED. *Reconstruction in Georgia, Economic, Social, Political, 1865-1872*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1915. Pp. 418. \$3.00. Paper.

This is the latest and in some respects the best of the series of studies upon reconstruction, the inspiration for which has been gained in Professor Dunning's seminar in Columbia University. Dr. Thompson's work covers the period, 1865-1872, with an introductory chapter upon Georgia in the Civil War. Compared with Dr. Woolley's study, which bears a similar title, the new work shows a marked advance in method, a broader point of view, and a greater maturity of judgment. Miss Thompson's book is particularly valuable for the light which it throws upon economic and social conditions in Georgia following the war. The political and constitutional aspects of reconstruction are not neglected but they occupy only one-fourth of the volume; the remaining three-fourths being devoted to economic and social reconstruction. The section upon railroads seems somewhat overburdened with statistics; while that upon the churches is all too short. The reconstruction of agriculture under the new labor system is described in much detail, and illustrated with fresh material from newspapers, family records, and official reports. An interesting point is made of the influence of the withdrawal of negro women from field labor upon the supply of labor for agricultural purposes. The Ku Klux Klan movement and outrages by negroes and against them are treated more briefly than in some other studies of the period. The author seems to feel that these were unfortunate, but inevitable results of the epoch; and that the description of them

should not be expanded at the expense of an adequate treatment of the great changes in economic organization. One gets the impression from this study that reconstruction was accomplished in Georgia with a minimum of economic and social loss. The second interference by Congress in the affairs of the State was due to the Democrats getting control of the State government at too early a date. There is an excellent bibliography, and an elaborate table of contents, but no index.

M.

LANSING, ROBERT, AND JONES, GARY M. *Government: Its Origin, Growth and Form in the United States*. Pp. viii, 252. 72 cents; with *The Government of Iowa*. By Dan Elbert Clark. \$1.00. 1915. New York: Silver, Burdette & Co.

The general edition of this work appeared in 1902, and therefore needs no comment. The supplement of 143 pages which has just been added contains a brief historical sketch of the State, and this is followed by a general description of the local and State governments, with special chapters on elections, taxation, roads, the State educational system, the military force of the State, and an appendix containing the State constitution. The treatment of the subject is essentially the same as that of other texts now in the field, but it is the only work that brings the government of that State up to date.

K. F. G.

MAITLAND, FREDERIC W., AND MONTAGUE, FRANCIS C. A *Sketch of Legal History*. Edited by James F. Colby. New York: Putnam's Sons, 1915. Pp. 229. \$1.50.

Professor Colby has made a useful book by reprinting the contributions on the history of English law in Traill's "Social England," which were written by Maitland and Montague. He has enhanced the value of the volume by adding material from other authors, including Blackstone, Pollock and Jenks, and by well-selected references for the various topics. The most important facts in the development of English law are set forth in a non-technical manner, so that the work will be useful for teachers of English history as well as for students of law.

Princeton University.

DANA C. MUNRO.

TUCKER, HENRY ST. GEORGE. *Limitations on the Treaty-Making Power Under the Constitution of the United States*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1915. Pp. xxi, 444. \$5.00.

As the title suggests, this work deals with the treaty-making power under the Constitution of the United States, and not with the broader question of the construction, scope, nature and binding effect of treaties in general. From the opinions of a large number of publicists, jurists and statesmen, which he quotes at length, from a critical examination of adjudicated cases and from a careful study of the Constitution itself, the author hopes to "eliminate the error of 'unlimited' and boundless power and establish what are the reasonable limitations." And it must be admitted, after a careful reading of the work, it is hard to deny that a clear case is established. The whole period of American history, both under the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution, is examined and the most important cases, covering every phase of the subject, receive due attention. The error of those who hold to the "unlimited" theory lies in the fact that the treaty-making power has been regarded too much from the point of view of the treaty clause by itself, which undoubtedly does give unlimited power as to subjects; but other articles of the

Constitution and the amendments of that instrument exclude certain subjects from the competence of the Executive. Positive prohibitions upon Congress, certain guarantees in the amendments, powers reserved to the States, including police powers, are in their very nature effective barriers against the treaty-making power. Especially interesting is the chapter on the Japanese-California controversies in which the weight of evidence favors the State as against the Federal government. That the present limited powers of the Federal government in these matters are often embarrassing, as in the California case, is not denied, but the proper remedy lies not in the assumption of new and unwarranted powers by the Executive, but in an amendment to the Constitution. It is a scholarly and valuable work, especially instructive to the teacher of constitutional law.

KARL F. GEISER.

Oberlin College.

LARSON, LAWRENCE M. *A Short History of England and the British Empire*. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1915. Pp. 661. \$1.40.

This volume is one of a series edited by Professor Haskins, of Harvard. The author, Professor Larson, of the University of Illinois, has compressed into a small manual the story of the development of England, giving particular attention to those topics which bear upon "the development of American life and thought and civilization."

The work is so well done that one cannot but regret that Professor Larson was so restricted by the size of the volume. It is a serious question whether, in undertaking to put so much valuable merchandise in so small a parcel, he has not attempted the impossible.

While it is true that a text-book may contain so much detail that the mind of the student is confused, it is also true that without considerable detail the text-book may lack that atmosphere, so indispensable to an appreciation of the subject. Professor Larson has avoided the first danger, but has not altogether escaped the second. He has made a wise selection of topics for discussion, and has discussed them in a clear and direct style. Several subjects, however, are inadequately treated, and several, which seem to an old teacher indispensable to a clear understanding of English history, are omitted altogether. The account of feudalism (page 56) gives no description of its military features. Insufficient emphasis is laid on the importance of the power of Parliament to impeach ministers of the crown, first exercised by the Good Parliament (page 173). The statement of the Test Act of 1673 is so incomplete as to be misleading, and the Parliamentary Test Act of 1678 is not mentioned. The important change made by the Act of Settlement of 1701 in the tenure of office of judges receives no attention. The discussion of the financial situation of Charles I is unfortunately brief. Nothing is said of the famous *Confirmatio Cartarum* of the time of Edward I.

However, no writer can be expected to cover the whole field of English history in one small volume, and do so to the entire satisfaction of all teachers. The present work has many excellent features and will make many friends. The illustrations are numerous, and for the most part are well chosen. There are some very interesting and unusual pictures made from photographs of historical places and buildings which greatly add to the usefulness of the book. It may be questioned, however, whether some of the 73 portraits might not have been omitted, without serious loss, and the valuable space thus saved used to better purpose in the discussion of some of the omitted topics.

Frequent references are given to source books and other text-books. The bibliography contains 70 titles, mostly of

text-books and short biographies. A few errors have been noted. Protestant dissenters were never excluded from Parliament as stated on page 537. Danby's attempt to exclude them was defeated by the efforts of Shaftsbury. The "Reformation Parliament" of the time of Henry VIII was not dissolved in "1534" (page 240), but in 1536. The Solemn League and Covenant was made in 1643, not "1644" (page 356). Grenville did not resign because of the Stamp Act (page 415). The number of Irish seats in the House of Commons by the Act of Union of 1801 was 100, not "101" (page 522). Colonel Nicolls, not "Nicholls," conquered New Netherland in 1664 (page 380).

Phillips Andover Academy.

ARCHIBALD FREEMAN.

ELLERY, ELOISE. *Brissot de Warville. A Study in the History of the French Revolution*. Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1915. Pp. xix, 528. \$1.75. Vassar Semi-Centennial Series.

The Vassar alumnae are to be congratulated on the publication of Dr. Ellery's biography of Brissot. It is tangible evidence that Vassar has produced an historian, and is additional proof that women can do as scientific work as men. In recent years only a limited number of scholarly works has been published in English on the French Revolution, and it is noteworthy that the majority of these volumes have been written by women; Miss Ellery's book is one of the best of them. It rests upon patient research—see the bibliography of fifty pages—and is the fruit of long years of study. A careful and impartial account of the life of one of the important figures of the revolution, it is the first biography of Brissot in English and—strange to say—the first full life of him that has ever been written.

Although the book carries the sub-title, "A Study in the History of the French Revolution," it is almost exclusively a biography, but little attention being paid to background. That is not necessarily a criticism of the work, for if more space were given to background, it could be found only by crowding out bibliographical detail or by enlarging the volume. While this narrower biographical method is justifiable, it is clear we know more about a man when we are told what others thought of him and of what he said and did. However, for the period of Brissot's life before the revolution, his biographer can do little more than let Brissot tell his own story, supplementing it with a description of his writings. Apart from some letters connected with Brissot's visit to this country, letters found in Washington, New York and Worcester (Mass.), Dr. Ellery, in spite of her tireless investigations, was able to add but little to the list of manuscript sources already known to us.

The most important chapters of the volume are those dealing with Brissot as a journalist and a humanitarian, and his visit to the United States. Students of United States history may read with profit the account of his colonial policy and his attitude toward slavery.

The University of Nebraska.

FRED MORROW FLING.

MOORE, NORMAN. *The Physician in English History*. Cambridge: The University Press, 1913. Pp. 57. 65 cents.

In this lecture before St. John's College, Cambridge, the author, a physician, appraises the services rendered by distinguished physicians of bygone times in other fields of activity than their profession. A few names that the layman recognizes, like Linacre and Arbutnot, appear among his worthies, but the book is primarily for readers of the author's profession rather than for the general student of history.

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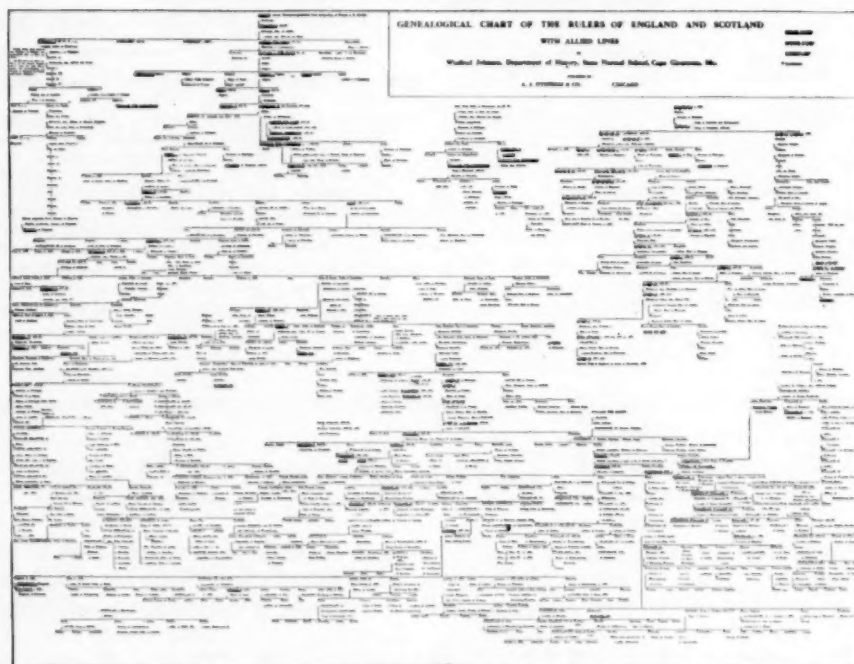
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